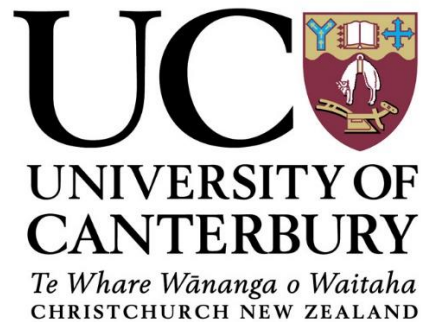


# **Development of teachers' and coaches' approaches and beliefs about games teaching in New Zealand schools as a process of learning**



A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree

of Doctor of Philosophy in Education

in the University of Canterbury

by Bianca Couto de Aguiar

College of Education, Health and Human Development

University of Canterbury

2018

# Acknowledgements

*People grow through experience if they meet life honestly and courageously. This is how character is built.*

*(Eleanor Roosevelt)*

Taking a moment to reflect about the hardest but most rewarding academic experience I've had, I don't think I could've completed this project without the efforts and contributions of the ones that witnessed my hard work, struggles and achievements.

First of all, I would like to thank the love of my life, my **Mother (Katia Couto)**. A woman that deserves the capital letter to express the fantastic human being she is. She worked all her life to give me the opportunity to pursue this dream. Even when she couldn't help, she never allowed me to stop dreaming and encourage me to work hard for the things I wanted. She always made me believe that I could achieve anything in life and that it wouldn't be a mere financial status that would prevent me to write my path. If it wasn't for her, this journey would have never begun, much less finished. Thank you for being who you are and reminding me of who I am. *With unconditional love.*

I want to express my deepest gratitude to **Professor Richard Light**, who guided and mentored me through this journey; who was honest in his opinions, even though sometimes they were very harsh and hard to take in. Thank you for preparing me to become the best researcher I can and add valuable contributions to the academic field, a field that is tough, competitive and not always fair. Thank you for all the time you spent to make sure that my work was up to high

standards and quality. But most important, thank you for giving me the opportunity to start this journey, for believing in this project, and for making my mother's words come true.

I want to thank **Dr. Chris North** for his valuable contributions to this project. For his feedback and comments that made me reflect through this research, and help elevate my work. For his enthusiasm, positive attitude and encouraging words that helped me be more confident about my work.

Thank you to my **Family** that, even though indirectly, was so important during this journey. Thank you for being always there for me; for bringing to this side of the world a little bit of home and comfort. Thank you for just listening when you didn't have anything to say. I love you all.

Last, but definitely not least, thank you to my beloved one and future husband, **Ricardo Pimenta**. Thank you for believing in me even before I believed in myself; for your constant support and reassurance, the reassurance I needed to keep on going. Thank you for your smile and positive attitude even when I couldn't see any positives. Thank you for the endless hours, reading my work when you had yours to read. Thank you for being one of the reasons I am here, and most of all, thank you for sharing this journey with me. I love you so much.

## Publications and Conference Presentations

- Aguiar, B. C., & Light, R. (2015). Self-directed learning of TGfU and the influence of mentor teachers during practicum in Portugal. In Edited Proceedings of the 29th International ACHPER conference: *Values into Action – A Brighter Future*, (pp. 197–205). Adelaide, South Australia.
- Aguiar, B. C., & Light, R. (2016). A challenge to the idea of an authentic version of a Game Based Approach. In J. Bruce & C. North (eds.) *2015 Game Sense for teachers and coaches conference: Proceedings*, pp. 15-27, Christchurch, 19-20 November, 2015.
- Aguiar, B. C., & Light, R. L. (2017). Gymnastics: Enhancing thought, awareness and positive experiences. In R.L. Light (ed.), *Positive pedagogy for sport coaching: Athlete-centred coaching for individual sports*, Oxon; New York, NY; Routledge is an imprint of the Taylor & Francis Group, an Informa Business, pp. 128-135.
- de Aguiar, B. C., & Light, R. L. (2018). Physical education teachers' and sport coaches' dispositions toward games teaching and the influence of GBA. *Graduate Journal of Sport, Exercise & Physical Education Research*, 7, 1-10.

## Abstract

This study builds on inquiry into the complexity of physical education teachers and sport coach development that accounts for the powerful influence of experience and context with a focus on teaching, and coaching team sport and games in schools. Over the past few decades, there has been growing research interest in student/player centred approaches to teaching and coaching team sport commonly referred to as GBA (games based approaches). Despite the promise of this development of GBA such as TGfU (teaching games for understanding) and Game Sense, this body of literature identifies a disappointing rate of teachers' and coaches' uptake of them. Given varying views of what is and what is not a genuine GBA, this may be misleading with few, if any, studies looking into at what *influence* they might have on teaching and coaching and how this occurs. To redress this oversight in the literature, this study adopted an open-ended, inductive research approach to inquire into the beliefs about, and practice of, teaching and coaching team sport among five New Zealand teachers and coaches and how their beliefs were developed over their lives with a focus on interaction and the influence of context. Employing a combined grounded theory and narrative inquiry methodology this study drew on the work of Dewey to conceptualise teacher/coach development as a learning continuum over their lives. It examines their learning through experience in socially and culturally shaped contexts about teaching and coaching to provide insight into the development of their beliefs about and practice of, teaching and coaching team sport as a learning continuum shaped by experience, interaction and context. The study suggests how the teachers' and coaches' beliefs and practice towards games and team sport teaching were developed through a process of learning located in a continuum of experience influenced by interaction and context over their lives. It adds to knowledge about the use of GBA by physical education teachers and sport

coaches in schools by providing an understanding of the complex processes through which they develop their beliefs about teaching and coaching team sport and how this is shaped by social, cultural and institutional context. It suggests that when a more open approach is taken to research on the uptake of GBA, it has a more significant influence on practice than it is currently assumed in the literature.

**Keywords:** GBAs, team sport, context, interaction, beliefs, experiential continuum, grounded theory, narrative inquiry, New Zealand

# Table of Contents

Acknowledgements.....	i
Publications and Conference Presentations .....	iii
Abstract .....	iv
Table of Contents.....	vi
List of Tables .....	xii
List of Abbreviations .....	xiii
1. Thesis Introduction .....	15
1.1 Identifying the Research Problem.....	16
1.2 A reflexive researcher .....	18
1.3 The thesis format.....	19
2. Literature Review.....	21
2.1 Teachers' past experiences .....	23
2.1.1 Beliefs and dispositions. ....	23
2.1.2 Habitus. ....	25
2.2 Teacher Socialisation .....	27
2.2.1 Acculturation.....	28
2.2.2 Professional Socialisation. ....	29
2.2.3 Organisational Socialisation. ....	31

2.2.4 A fourth stage on PE teacher socialisation?.....	32
2.3 Physical education and School sport.....	34
2.3.1 Health and Physical Education Curriculum in the New Zealand Context.....	34
2.3.2 School Sport in New Zealand. ....	37
2.3.3 Physical Education Curriculum in the U.K. Context. ....	39
2.3.4 School Sport in the U.K. ....	42
2.4 PE Teachers’ preparation.....	44
2.4.1 The New Zealand context. ....	45
2.4.2 The U.K. context.....	46
2.5 Coaches’ preparation .....	48
2.6 Approaches to teaching and coaching.....	50
2.6.1 Teacher/Coach-centred. ....	50
2.6.2 Student/Athlete-centred. ....	52
3. Theoretical Framework.....	55
3.1 Views on constructivism: Two main versions .....	57
3.1.1 Psychological constructivism.....	60
3.1.2 Social constructivism.....	62
3.2 Developments of Vygotsky work .....	65
3.2.1 Socio-cultural constructivism. ....	65
3.2.2 Dewey’s “Experience and education”. ....	66
3.3 Social construction of beliefs and dispositions – Occupational Socialisation.....	69



3.4 Apprenticeship of Observation .....	70
3.5 Situated learning, Communities of practice (CoP), and Legitimate peripheral learning (Lave and Wenger) .....	72
3.6 Overview of constructivism in Sport and Physical Education.....	73
4. Methodology .....	76
4.1 Endorsing a Paradigm of Inquiry .....	77
4.2 Grounded Theory .....	79
4.2.1 Historical Development. ....	80
4.2.2 Constructivist grounded theory.....	83
4.3 Narrative Inquiry.....	85
4.3.1 Shifts toward Narrative Inquiry. ....	87
4.3.2 Purpose of Narrative Inquiry. ....	93
4.3 Combining Grounded Theory and Narrative Inquiry .....	94
4.4 Research Design and Methods.....	96
4.5 Reflexive and interpretive stance.....	97
4.6 Site and Participants' Selection .....	99
4.7 Data Generation .....	103
4.7.1 Interviews.....	104
4.7.2 Observations and field notes.....	106
4.8 Data Analysis .....	107
4.8.1 Coding.....	109
4.8.2 Constant Comparison.....	110

4.8.3 Memos.....	111
4.8.4 Theoretical Sensitivity. ....	113
4.8.5 Theoretical Saturation. ....	116
4.9 Ethical Considerations .....	117
4.9.1 Informed Consent and Cover Letter. ....	118
4.9.2 Confidentiality and Anonymity. ....	118
5. Thesis Findings .....	119
5.1 Introduction.....	119
6. Teaching and Coaching Beliefs .....	121
6.1 Mark.....	121
6.2 Rachel .....	123
6.3 David.....	124
6.4 Christina.....	126
6.5 Sarah .....	128
7. Participants' Narratives.....	131
7.1 Introduction .....	131
8. Mark.....	132
8.1 Summary .....	140
9. Rachel .....	143
9.1 Summary .....	153
10. David.....	155

10.1 Summary .....	162
11. Christina.....	164
11.1 Summary .....	172
12. Sarah .....	174
12.1 Summary .....	181
13. Narratives Discussion .....	184
14. Core Themes .....	187
14.1 Introduction.....	187
15. Early Experiences .....	188
15.1 Sport and Schooling.....	188
15.2 Distinct cultural context, different experiences and interactions.....	193
15. 3 Summary.....	196
16. The influence of Tertiary Education .....	198
16.1 Different PETE programmes – When sport and PE merge .....	199
16.2 Tensions between Sport and PE.....	202
16.3 Summary .....	206
17. School Context.....	208
17.1 Socialisation in different school contexts .....	209
17.2 <i>Superficial</i> change vs <i>Real</i> change .....	215
17.3 Summary .....	218
18. Thesis Discussion.....	221

18.1 Introduction.....	221
18.2 The Continuity of Learning Experiences .....	222
18.2.1 The Ongoing influence of social interaction.....	224
18.2.2 Influence of Context. ....	229
19. Conclusion .....	235
19.1 Introduction.....	235
19.2 Contributions to knowledge in the field.....	236
19.2.1 The main contributions. ....	237
19.3 Reflections on the Study .....	239
19.3.1 Reflections on the research process and methodology. ....	239
19.4 Implications and future research .....	240
References.....	244
Appendices.....	286
Preface.....	286
Appendix One: Initial (Open) Coding .....	287
Appendix Two: Focused Coding .....	305
Appendix Three: Emergent Themes and Narrative Analysis .....	314
Appendix Four: Ethical Approval.....	319
Appendix Five: Consent forms and Information sheets .....	320

## List of Tables

Table 1. Paradigmatic and narrative modes of knowing.....	93
---	----

## **List of Abbreviations**

CGT - Constructivist Grounded Theory

CoP - Communities of Practice

CPD - Continuous Professional Development

DfEE - Department for Education and Employment

GBA – Game-Based Approach

GCA - Games Centred Approach

GS - Game Sense

GT - Grounded Theory

HPE - Health and Physical Education

ICCE - International Council for Coach Education

ITE - Initial Teacher Education

NCEA - National Certificate of Education Achievement

NI - Narrative Inquiry

NSO - National Sports Organisations

NZ - New Zealand

NZCF - New Zealand Curriculum Framework

NZSSSC - New Zealand Secondary School Sports Council

PE - Physical Education

PETE - Physical Education Teacher Education

RSD - Regional Sports Directors

RST - Regional Sport Trusts

TA - Territorial Authorities

TGfU - Teaching Game for Understanding

UED - University Department of Education

U.K. - United Kingdom

ZPD - Zone of Proximal Development

# 1. Thesis Introduction

From the time I began thinking about this study, I was aware that my own experiences and my background would somehow influence the design of the study, how I would conduct it and its findings. What I didn't know was to what extent my personal experiences would affect my views as a researcher and my analysis. As I progressed, I became more aware of how my experiences and dispositions would impact the study. This encouraged me to reflect on my upbringing; the origins of my interest in sport, specifically in physical education, and how the absence of professional experiences in later stages of my development as a teacher and researcher might have influenced my analysis, and my ability to distance from the data.

I have lived all my life in Portugal, a beautiful country where I played sport since I can remember. Unstructured play was almost part of my daily routine as my family was very active, and sport was seen as a way of gathering. My parents brought their Brazilian roots into our games, and we used to spend endless hours playing outside just for fun. Later on, I think at around seven or eight years old, I decided to follow my sister's footsteps and started gymnastics. The contrast between the unstructured games I was used to and gymnastics was immense as everything was much more structured and rigid compared to the freedom of our informal games, and the control we had over them. As I contemplate on these early experiences, I realise how similar they were to games based approaches (GBA). Reflecting on this time of my life, and after completing the study and writing this introduction, I also realise how my early experiences shaped my motivations for becoming a physical education teacher and my interest in TGfU (Teaching Games for Understanding), after being first exposed to it during University.



I remember learning about the TGfU model as a pedagogical option to apply in future classes, and I was immediately intrigued by it, but my only knowledge about it was through listening to our lecturer in class and reading about it. I had no practical experience of it up until my first placement.

Up until my first and only placement I was “piling up concepts” and copying my teacher’s ways and views about teaching (Lortie, 1975), but this changed over my practicum where my experiences and interaction with my supervisor stirred my curiosity. I was fortunate enough to experience full-time teaching during placement, where I was in charge of a class for an entire school year. The pressure of having the responsibility of delivering quality teaching made me structure my classes in an attempt to minimise mistakes. The structure evident in my classes was quickly spotted and questioned by my supervisor as he asked me if all my students were the same and were at the same level. That simple question made me reflect on teaching for the first time. It helped me realise that I was not focusing on what really mattered, which was the individual development of each student. In conversation with him, he mentioned TGfU as an approach that he believed accounted for the diversity of students in one class and their individual needs. At that point, I not only recognised that my attempt to have some structure was probably a reflection of how I was taught but also a reflection of my desire to know more about TGfU. After some reading about it, I also wanted to know why it was not widely known and implemented.

### **1.1 Identifying the Research Problem**

I was exposed to a reflexive process during placement, and all the questions I had related to teachers’ development and evolution of the approaches to teaching and coaching games such as TGfU were the triggers for my desire to pursue a PhD. Initially, my main interest was to understand and explain why TGfU, in particular, was not well established and widely

used. This has led to a focus in trying to identify to what extent teachers were authentically implementing TGfU and what was possibly preventing them from using this approach, with a focus on preservice teachers. As I searched for more information about TGfU, I became more knowledgeable about the approach, but my research interests were narrow and didn't account for other GBAs.

When I was looking for academics working with TGfU who I could do my PhD with I found Professor Richard Light's work. Some of his papers on TGfU, such as "The Social Nature of Games: Australian Preservice Primary Teachers' First Experiences of Teaching Games for Understanding", and "A personal journey: TGfU teacher development in Australia and the USA" with Joy Butler caught my attention and further enhanced my curiosity. After communicating with him by email and discussing my original ideas, I realised that to understand and explore teachers' development in terms of the approaches they adopt and why I couldn't just look at TGfU. I thought that I should have a broader perspective, being more flexible and open. I also realised that trying to identify an "authentic" version of GBA would exclude the *influence* of GBA like TGfU on teaching. This idea was further enhanced by the reading I did that suggested that there seemed to be a limited amount of research exploring the development of teachers practice and beliefs as a gradual process of learning and this was the foundation for this research. Instead of narrowing down the focus of my research to TGfU, or on who is doing authentic ("real") TGfU and who is not, I became interested in knowing more about teachers and coaches learning experiences through their lives in order to have an understanding of how widespread the influence of GBA actually is.

Professor Light asked me to arrive at a question my study would answer, and this took longer than I thought it would. After a lot of fine-tuning and modification, I came up with the central research question of: "What are New Zealand secondary teachers' and coaches'

approaches and beliefs about games teaching and what has shaped this as a process of learning?’’.

## **1.2 A reflexive researcher**

As Kathy Charmaz (see, 2006; 2014) says, the researcher and the object of research cannot be seen as being separate from each other as she believes that the researcher has the power to influence the analysis. The influence of the researcher on the data and findings can begin well before the beginning of the study. As Campbell, Daft and Hulin (1982) point out, the emergence of research questions is not a process purely rational and deductive. They believe that the researcher’s life story and experiences influence the research, and frequently generate significant understanding and insights. The knowledge previously acquired by a researcher that he/she brings to the study may affect findings, and this should be made transparent to avoid forcing unsupported theory development. Thus, reflexivity (Howell, 2013) is fundamental in social science research, as it examines oneself and the relationships between the researcher and the object of research (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992; Creswell, 2013; Mauthner & Doucet, 2003). This was something I paid attention to throughout this study.

Reflexivity was assisted by and made more important because of the nature of CGT and the inability of detaching the researcher from the research (Charmaz, 2006, 2014), or of separating the research from the world we live in, and the implications it has on our understanding and meanings we make (Shaw, 2010). However, the challenge for me was to recognise my predispositions, but at the same time allow the data to speak and the insights to emerge rather than force data construction. As Brewer (2000) argues, reflexivity is the action from which the social processes (cultural, historical and the like) shape data construction. Thus, in order for a researcher to uncover these social processes, it is crucial to undergo an evaluation of the self (Howell, 2013).

Despite my limited experience as a PE teacher in Portugal, the experiences I have accumulated during many years as a student and athlete in different contexts have influenced my beliefs about teaching. The awareness that experience and context were essential in the development of my own beliefs and practice about teaching and coaching, made possible to understand and think about the development of teachers' and coaches' beliefs and approaches as something that is far more complex, and that has many factors contributing to its development. While I feel that my lack of experience in teaching limited my ability to let the data speak, I also feel that that same lack of experience helped me look at the data without all the *baggage* and preconceived ideas I would have if I had many years of teaching background influencing my analysis. Coming from a different culture where English is not the main language was also a challenge that shaped my analysis. There were times where I felt insecure and unsure if I was going to be able to truly understand, interpret and put into words the participants' experiences and emerging theory. This was further complicated by the fact that I was very ambitious in choosing a complex methodology, but I do not regret making this choice due to the quality of the data generated.

### **1.3 The thesis format**

Due to the complexity of this study, I felt the need to briefly explain the structure of the thesis in the Introduction chapter to allow the reader a better understanding throughout the document. Despite using a combined Constructivist Grounded Theory (CGT) and Narrative Inquiry (NI) methodology that would suggest a reverse configuration of the thesis, this document follows a traditional thesis format. It is important to note that despite adopting a conventional format, the arrangement and focus of the chapters in the Findings and Thesis Discussion reflect the use of CGT. The influence of the CGT approach is also evident in chapter two (Literature Review) that starts with a broad review of literature, outlining the general

research area that was used, but then moves towards a more focused, delayed review of the literature that emerged through the grounded theory process. The same can be noted in chapter three (Theoretical Framework) as it acknowledges that first, a likely theoretical framework was identified, but that only later in the study, after focus coding, and by following the process of developing theoretical categories (Charmaz, 2014), a theoretical framework underpinned by constructivist learning theories emerged.

Due to the complexity of the data generated during the study, and in order to answer the research question in the clearest way possible, the Findings are divided into three main sections. These are the individual chapters where the first section (chapter 6) identifies all the participants' beliefs about teaching and coaching. Section two is composed of six chapters each one devoted to telling the narratives of each participant, followed by a final discussion. The third and final section comprises three chapters which are the three themes developed through the grounded theory process. The way the Findings are structured reflects the process of grounded theory adopted throughout the study, but also highlights the role that narrative inquiry played in answering the central research question.

Chapter eighteen (Thesis Discussion) is a pivotal chapter in this study as it provides a summary of the findings and identifies the central idea underpinning the findings designated as the main theme. It also reflects the role of theory and literature in the later stage of the analysis and the development of theoretical themes.

Appendices one to three provide detail on how the themes were developed through CGT and where and how the narrative analysis was integrated.

## **2. Literature Review**

In this study, I adopted a combined constructivist grounded theory (CGT) and narrative inquiry (NI) methodology (see Methodology chapter). In grounded theory research, the place and the need for the literature have been a controversial and exhaustively debated topic (Charmaz, 2006; Dunne, 2011; McGhee, Marland, & Atkinson, 2007; Walls, Parahoo, & Fleming, 2010). The main issue is the influence of prior knowledge on the researched area. According to Glaser (1992), this leads to an imposed and not emergent theory, which goes against the principles of grounded theory. There are aspects of the grounded theory process that are not common to traditional conventions of academic research, and literature review is one of them, as in academic research the literature review is an institutional requirement (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007). As a result of the inductive properties present in a constructivist grounded theory (CGT) methodology, and the emergence of a theory from the constant data analysis and comparison, the process of writing the literature review is delayed (Charmaz, 2006) to avoid entering the study with preconceived ideas that will later on influence the analysis.

This delay contrasts with traditional, deductive research where is through the literature review process that inconsistencies are identified and research questions developed but ensures that the theory will emerge from the data (Glaser, 1978). However, such traditions are perpetuated by institutional requirements and often constrain the use of a delayed literature review (Charmaz, 2006). For that reason, in early stages of this study, I have adopted the strategy proposed by Urquhart (2013) where he suggests that researchers using grounded theory begin with a broad review of literature outlining the general research area that has been used, with a subsequent focused, but still delayed review of the literature.

The chapter is structured taking into account the concerns mentioned above and shows the presence of literature using grounded theory. Therefore, the literature review is divided into two parts with the aim of showing the progression of the study as it happened on site. In the first part I provide a broad review of literature outlining the general research in the area, followed by a second part, where I present a focused, delayed, review of the literature (guided by the emerging data and analysis). This chapter does not display any data. However, it is evident through the reading presented its proximity with the analysis of the data and emerging findings.

The first section in this chapter begins by looking into literature about beliefs and dispositions, and how experience tends to underpin the assumptions teachers and coaches make about their future selves and the profession. The second section draws on socialisation literature to provide an overview of teachers'/coaches' socialisation process into teaching and coaching. It specifically looks into occupational socialisation that, according to Lawson (1983) is divided into three phases: acculturation; professional socialisation, and organisational socialisation. From this point onwards, the literature reflects the use of grounded theory and becomes more focused. It starts with the contextualization of PE and sport (specifically school sport) in New Zealand, looking into their development and how they are structured. This is followed by how PE and school sport developed and works in the U.K. context, as one of the participants had experienced that specific cultural setting. This section is proceeded by how teachers are introduced to teaching and coaching in tertiary education in New Zealand and the U.K., with an overview of teacher's professional development and higher education programmes. The final section presents an examination of teacher/coach-centred and student/athlete-centred terms, as they are widely used during the study, and were essential to understand where the

participants' beliefs and practices sit on. In this section, terms such as traditional approaches and game-based approaches (GBA) are also briefly examined as they are closely related.

## **2.1 Teachers' past experiences**

Past experiences of sport, physical activity and schooling tend to shape the knowledge taken up by future teachers as well as their understandings and assumptions they made about themselves (Garrett & Wrench, 2007; Groundwater-Smith, Mitchell, & Mockler, 2007; Light & Tan, 2006; Munby, Russell, & Martin, 2001). These experiences can be built upon, or enable changes in the perception of physical education, based on their beliefs and experiences (O'Sullivan, MacPhail, & Tannehill, 2009). Teachers enter into the profession with beliefs and dispositions developed over a lifetime, influenced by different experiences and interactions with people who have had a significant influence on their practice (Taylor & Wasicsko, 2000).

### **2.1.1 Beliefs and dispositions.**

Different perspectives and attempts of defining beliefs are not recent and have a long history. Back in 1933, Dewey suggested that belief is, "something beyond itself by which its value is tested; it makes an assertion about some matter of fact or some principle or law" (p. 6). He also argued that the importance of belief is essential, because "it covers all the matters of which we have no sure knowledge and yet which we are sufficiently confident of to act upon and also the matters that we now accept as certainly true, as knowledge, but which nevertheless may be questioned in the future" (p. 6). Later on, Brown and Cooney (1982) defined beliefs as being dispositions to action and key factors of behaviour, even though these dispositions are time and context specific. Sigel (1985) saw beliefs as "mental constructions of experience—often condensed and integrated into schemata or concepts" (p. 351) that are believed to be true



and that guide behaviour. Extending on previous work, Harvey (1986) defines belief as an individual's representation of reality that carries validity, truth, and/or credibility to guide thought and behaviour. In 1997, Raymond explained the concept of beliefs by saying that they are “personal judgments formulated from experiences” (p. 552). More recently, Pehkonen and Pietilä (2003) suggested that a belief can be seen as a type of knowledge that is “subjective, experience-based, often implicit” (p. 2). Despite all the attempts in defining beliefs and the nuances between them, they all seem to share the same core idea that beliefs are implicit and act at a non-conscious level, being developed through experience.

Curry (2012) highlights the complexity of how teachers develop knowledge and dispositions toward teaching by suggesting that “teachers’ beliefs about learning are the result of their persona, culture and education” (p.46). Through their lives, they gain knowledge, not only in informal education settings as students, from the way they were taught, but also from their own life experiences as well as their experiences during teacher education (Tsangaridou, 2006). Calderhead and Robson (1991) state that preservice teachers keep from their experiences as students, images of teaching that influence their understanding of the classroom practices, playing an essential role in identifying how they interpret and use the knowledge they possessed, and how they choose the practices they would undertake later as teachers.

Taking into account the number of aspects contributing to the development of teachers’ beliefs, when asked to change, the new knowledge must be substantial enough to replace the previous knowledge effectively (Munby, Russell, & Martin, 2001). The beliefs teachers hold can influence their discernment and conclusions, which are likely to affect their behaviour. Understanding teachers and future teachers’ beliefs is crucial to improving their professional training and teaching practices (Ashton, 1990; Ashton & Webb, 1986; Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Clark, 1988; Goodman, 1988; Munby, 1982, 1984; Nespor, 1987; Wilson, 1990).

The importance that experiences have in the development of teachers' beliefs about teaching can also be observed in the coaching literature. As Light, Evans, Harvey and Hassanin (2015) argue, "...experience influences practice and beliefs at a non-conscious level and is developed over long periods of time" saying that "this embodied knowledge is particularly powerful because it operates at a level below consciousness as common sense" (p. 53). As Davis and Sumara (2003) suggest regarding constructivist informed teaching, to change teachers' practice is required to bring their beliefs to consciousness by having teachers articulate them. Furthermore, the concept of habitus (Bourdieu, 1990) offers an additional explanation on how experience can have a deep and resilient influence over teachers' and coaches' actions and dispositions.

### **2.1.2 Habitus.**

Bourdieu's (1990) analytic concepts have been widely used in the physical education and sport coaching research to explain how experiences within specific cultural fields and sub-fields over time embed knowledge and sets of dispositions in the body that implicitly but powerfully shape thinking and action (see for example Light et al., 2015). Sport has been significantly referenced in Bourdieu's work as he describes how people develop a natural feel for specialized participation and proficiency in sport through using the term "le sens pratique" (practical sense or common sense) (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 129), as a metaphor for the influence of social life.

In Bourdieu's concept of habitus, learning through experience in specific contexts can develop a practical mastery of the game (Bourdieu, 1984). This concept was developed in his attempt to understand social practice and to demonstrate the ways in which not only the body is in the social world, but also how the social world is in the body (Bourdieu, 1977). He suggests that habitus is expressed through resilient "ways of standing, speaking, walking, and thereby

of feeling and thinking” (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 70). As well as confirming the powerful implicit influence of the habitus this also suggests the relationship between embodied learning that arises from participation in sport and other physical activity and how they feel and think. In this way, “the most improbable practices are therefore excluded, as unthinkable, by a kind of immediate submission to [the] order that inclines agents . . . to refuse what is anyway denied and to will the inevitable” (Bourdieu, 1992, p. 54). Habitus is a product of past experiences and produces present and future practices in a way that provides structure for perceptions and opinions, but “we don’t directly feel the influence of these past selves precisely because they are so deeply rooted within us” (Bourdieu, 1992, p. 56).

Therefore, habitus is more reproductive of the past rather than innovative or creative, and seen against changes by “rejecting information capable of calling into question its accumulated information . . . [and] especially avoiding exposure to such information” (Bourdieu, 1992, pp. 60-61). This might explain the difficulties in changes of habitus or human practice since habitus is a practice-generator mechanism that is deeply rooted in histories and experiences and provides a “selective perception . . . tending to confirm and reinforce it rather than transform it” (Bourdieu, 1992, p. 64).

As Light and Kirk (2000) suggest, habitus is “the embodied social history of the individual, as the cumulative somatic product of the individual’s corporeal engagement in social and cultural practice” (p. 165). In this way, the concept of habitus seems to have great importance in the understanding of how experience over time shapes PE teachers’ and coaches’ practice, their beliefs and experiences, and the level of growth and acceptance of innovative practices.

With participation in social and cultural practice over time appearing to have such relevance in shaping the participants’ beliefs, it is crucial to understand and further explore

teacher socialisation as it presents three stages that also seem to influence teachers' dispositions.

## **2.2 Teacher Socialisation**

Socialisation is known to be a complex process that has a profound impact on teachers' beliefs and dispositions toward teaching. More specifically, socialisation has been described in the literature as the “process through which individuals learn the norms, cultures, and ideologies deemed important in a particular social setting by interacting with one another and social institutions” (Richards & Gaudreault, 2017, p.3). Occupational socialisation has been widely used in physical education and the study of teachers' lives and careers. Its roots were influenced by research on sociology of teaching that has been done on general education literature, and that looked for understanding the reasons why future teachers pursue teacher education, and the challenges they face when experiencing the different realities of school settings (Gould, 1934; Lacey, 2012; Lortie, 1975).

The early work conducted in teacher socialisation in physical education occurred during the '70s where professional socialisation was studied through teacher education programmes (Burlingame, 1972; Pooley, 1972, 1975). In 1979, Templin's study of student teachers was the first exploration of the workplace socialisation, and his work established the foundation for Lawson's (1983) work that came to outline the basic assumptions of a theory of occupational socialisation into the teaching profession. He believes that socialisation into PE teaching starts during childhood, and that people's own experiences as a student impact the beliefs and attitudes they bring to their teacher training and later on into their teaching careers.

In 1986, Lawson defined occupational socialisation framework as “all kinds of socialisation that initially influence persons to enter the field of physical education and the later are responsible for their perceptions and actions as teacher educators and teachers” (p.107). He

made four assumptions about PE teachers' socialisation, and the fourth one seems to have led to three stages of occupational socialisation (Lawson, 1986). Firstly, Lawson said that PE teachers' socialisation is a life-long process. Secondly, he thinks that practices in PE are institutionalised, which encourages new teachers to follow and reproduce more experienced teachers' practices. The third assumption is that "socialisation is problematic rather than automatic" (O' Leary, 2016, p.6). And the fourth and final assumption is that teachers face three stages of occupational socialisation.

Three stages have been used by scholars in occupational socialisation that is frequently represented using a time-oriented continuum:

The first phase, acculturation, represents the period of time where recruits learn about the profession from teachers, coaches, and other significant individuals, before entering a teacher education programme. The second phase, professional socialisation, refers to the time in which future teachers are enrolled in a teacher certification programme at a college or University. Organisational socialisation is the third phase and is the time where individuals assume the role of teacher in K–12 schools (Richards, Templin, & Graber, 2014, p.113).

Lawson (1983), and Templin and Schempp (1989) adopted these three phases of socialisation to initially outlining teacher socialisation in physical education.

### **2.2.1 Acculturation.**

Acculturation explains the ways in which individuals are socialised into teaching well before their formal entry into teacher education programmes, and it is often referred to as pre-training or anticipatory socialisation, (Lawson, 1983). Acculturation initiates at birth and lasts

until the point when an individual decides to enter a teacher education programme. During this time, early experiences as students form the basis for future teachers' identities or the ways they visualise themselves as teachers (Bullough & Pinnegar, 2001). There is some evidence that indicates that acculturation is "the most potent type of socialisation experienced by PE teachers" (Curtner-Smith, Hastie, & Kinchin, 2008, p. 99), and that can be more influential than teacher education (Zeichner & Gore, 1990). This stage has also been referred to as being a period of anticipatory socialisation (Lacey, 2012). However, it has also been said that "while acculturation has a profound impact on one's perspective of teaching, it may not give potential recruits deep insight into the technical culture of teaching (e.g., teacher knowledge and skills related to curriculum development, instructional strategies, student assessment)" (Templin, Padaruth, Sparkes, & Schempp, 2017, p.12).

Dewar and Lawson (1984) work suggest that the socialisation occurring through sport is a powerful experience that encourages young people to become PE teachers. As successful athletes and highly skilled in sport, trainees experience a curriculum that is dominated by sport and games and are predisposed to provide the same experience to their students in the future. Also, the figure of PE teacher and athletics coach is frequently seen to create the idea that they could be highly competent in this job and that they would fit in well with the profession based on their athletic performance (Lawson, 1986; Pooley, 1975; Templin, Woodford, & Mulling, 1982). "Having developed the view that PE does not involve planning, formal instruction, and evaluation, recruits were likely to resist professional socialisation and contest the ideologies and practices professed by teacher education faculty" (Templin et al., 2017, p.14).

### **2.2.2 Professional Socialisation.**

When the future teacher enters a teacher education programme setting, usually in a college or University, professional socialisation begins (Lawson, 1983, 1986). During this

phase, they learn the knowledge, skills, and dispositions considered essential to enter the profession (Lawson, 1983). At the same time, they go into the general education courses taken outside the department and have field-based experiences undertaken in local schools and classrooms (Zeichner, 1979).

However, Schempp and Graber (1992) highlight that it is not possible to say that the recruits will accept all the knowledge, beliefs and values transmitted by teacher educators as the theories built by preservice teachers are not easily altered and all socialisation, including professional socialisation, is dialectical (Graber, 1989). To effectively socialise future teachers, the existing beliefs and prior experiences they had must be recognised by teacher educators. Teachers need to be willing to negotiate and dialogue about them (Schempp & Graber, 1992). It is shown in the literature that teacher education programmes have a different impact on recruits depending on the acculturation of the future teachers, the quality of the programme, and the belief system of Physical Education Teacher Education (PETE) faculty (Curtner-Smith et al., 2008). There is a chance that the ideologies of trainees can be reshaped during this stage of socialisation. However, professional socialisation has also been identified as the least influential form of socialisation when compared with the two other phases (Graber, 1991).

Regarding the importance of professional socialisation in PE, Lawson (1983) believed that the students could be just complying with PETE requirements to get through the programmes, without allowing their beliefs and dispositions, developed prior to formal training, to change. This means that when they faced the conservative philosophy of the school, the effects of professional socialisation were quickly washed out during their placements, or their first years of teaching.

Lee and Curtner-Smith (2011) suggest that numerous PETE programmes seem to support distorted preconceptions of pedagogy and PE. They say that the programmes that are successful in changing future teachers' beliefs and practices are commonly run by

“innovatively oriented, no coaching, highly credible, specialist sport pedagogy faculty. These teacher educators usually supervise and monitor early field experiences (EFEs) and student teaching vigorously” (Lee & Curtner-Smith, 2011, p.297).

### **2.2.3 Organisational Socialisation.**

The way in which researchers in physical education view socialisation in the workplace has a strong influence on Van Maanen and Schein’s (1979) theory of organisational socialisation. They suggest that “organisational socialisation is a jejune phrase used by social scientists to refer to the process by which one is taught and learns the ropes of a particular organisational role” (p. 211). What is vital to capture from this definition is that the socialisation process is an ongoing process and continues to shape one’s experience throughout the organisational career. Culture within a given school context might help develop teachers’ actions and behaviours as well as their orientations toward teaching (Feiman-Nemser & Folden, 1984). Particularly to PE, Lawson (1989) defined the school’s organisational culture as:

...largely unwritten and consisting of deeply embedded assumptions, which are accepted and professed by veterans and powerful school personnel. The organisational culture has two functions. First, it helps the school and its members meet external environmental demands. Second, it facilitates the internal integration of diverse school workers (p. 152).

The match or disparity between orientations may influence and help to determine the extent to which there is a conflict in perspectives. (Stran & Curtner-Smith, 2009). According to Lawson (1986), during organisational socialisation teachers’ beliefs can be shaped and reshaped by colleagues, students, administrators, school context, the community, among other



factors. It is also stated that “organisational socialisation is more powerful than professional socialisation and may wash out the effects of the latter, especially if the teacher’s perspectives on the purpose of physical education are left unchanged by teacher education” (Templin et al., 2017, p.12).

In his work, Lawson (1983) observed that when entering teaching, most trainees were expected to coach as part of their role in the school, and that has generated a dilemma of what role was more important to them and would require their time and effort. In saying that:

Teachers who prioritized coaching had custodial teaching orientations, low career commitment to teaching, low academic teaching time, and were unlikely to have formal curriculum guides. However, teachers who prioritized teaching held innovative teaching orientations with a relatively higher career commitment, achieved higher academic learning time, and developed formal curriculum guides (Templin et al., 2017, p.16).

#### **2.2.4 A fourth stage on PE teacher socialisation?**

The Physical Education literature is littered with failed attempts at change and innovation (see Macdonald, 2003), and according to research on PE teacher socialisation (Armour & Jones, 1998; Dewar, 1989; Dewar & Lawson, 1984; Macdonald & Tinning, 1995; Rovegno, 1998) innovative approaches to teaching such as TGfU and other GBA’s may cause some conflict with the beliefs, values and attitudes regarding teaching and learning that students carry with them to PETE programs.

Occupational socialisation has been, for many years, extensively explored in educational research through the three stages well known: acculturation (i.e., process of socialisation that occurs before formal teacher training), professional socialisation (i.e., teacher

training programs, usually undergraduate degrees), and organisational socialisation (i.e., an ongoing, career-long process of socialisation that takes place in the school setting where one works). However, in recent literature, a possible fourth stage or phase has been suggested with interest in the influence of doctoral training in preparation for faculty roles (see, for example, Lee & Curtner-Smith, 2011; Richards, Eberline, & Templin, 2016; Russell, Gaudreault, & Richards, 2016). This is referred by Lee and Curtner-Smith (2011) as secondary professional socialisation and has led to the extension of the teacher socialisation model. What is new in Lee's and Curtner-Smith's work is how it indicates "that the participants' secondary professional socialisation (i.e., graduate work) was relatively potent and powerful to the extent that it could overcome moderate coaching orientations that had survived to that point in a teacher/teacher educator's career" (Lee & Curtner-Smith, 2011, p.310). More recently, Richards et al. (2016, p. 71) suggest that "Research done in HPE indicates that graduate education is a potent socialising experience and is particularly effective in shifting HPE-GS<sup>1</sup> perspectives from being coaching to teaching-oriented".

The stages of teacher socialisation that emerged as being important in this study were crucial for understanding the development of the participants' beliefs and practice. However, to fully comprehend the participant's development, it was critically important to know more about how Physical Education and School Sport are organised both in New Zealand and in the U.K., the two contexts where the participants' development occurred.

---

<sup>1</sup> HPE-GS – Health and Physical Education Graduate students

## **2.3 Physical education and School sport**

In my study, cultural setting and distinct institutional contexts were crucial in shaping the participants' approaches towards and beliefs about teaching and coaching. For that reason, it was of pivotal importance to understand the development of physical education and school sport in the distinct settings the participants experienced learning, teaching and coaching.

### **2.3.1 Health and Physical Education Curriculum in the New Zealand Context.**

The education system in New Zealand was inherited from Great Britain. Approaches, aspirations, and values were brought by colonisers in the hope of generating an informed and educated population and an egalitarian society (Grant, 1992). Physical Education in secondary schools was first suggested as an academic subject in 1963 by Sam Lewis (Stothart, 1996). There were other documented proposals to an academic approach to PE across New Zealand journals during the 1960s and 1970s (Stothart, 1996). However, until the mid-1980s, physical education was not officially part of the Year 11 and 12 curricula as it was only after that that PE guaranteed a position as an academic school subject in the curriculum for secondary school. Even after being recognised as a subject, PE was not formally assessed as the other subjects, and the schools were only required to complete a certain number of hours of PE in their junior programmes to meet the requirements for the School Certificate qualification (Bowes & Bruce, 2011). The first appearance of PE as an assessed subject in secondary school in New Zealand was in the 1980s in the form of "Sixth Form Certificate (6FC) for Year 12 students, and as a Higher School Certificate (HSC) for Year 13 students" (Bowes & Bruce, 2011, p.17). It consisted of units of work around topics including leisure, motor learning, sport, participation, outdoor education, and anatomy. Yet, according to Cassidy (1996), it was only in 1992 that PE was actually able to establish itself as a subject worthy of grants and scholarships by the Universities which helped to secure its position in the senior school curriculum.

Despite the advances in PE up to 1992, the main breakthrough was in 1999 when Health and Physical Education (HPE) was released in the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 1999). The curriculum encouraged a critical pedagogy that was lacking in previous physical education practices. It came to challenge the “hegemonic practices focusing on health related fitness, body image, body shape, the scientific base to performance in sport, masculine interpretations of the body and performance that have been previously promoted in physical education” (Culpan, 2005, p.1). The purpose of this new curriculum was to develop a new teaching/learning paradigm for PE, and its goals were described by Culpan (2005, p.3) as being an attempt to:

- Define learning outcomes for physical education which encouraged a holistic approach based on a socio-ecological perspective;
- Encourage greater integration and balance between the social and physical sciences;
- Contextualize physical education with a set of attitudes and values that signified the importance of movement as a valued human practice;
- Address critical learning dimensions that had been largely lacking in previous curricula and physical education practice;
- Centralize and acknowledge that the individual, in his /her search for personal meaning, once educated in health and physical education, would be able to make positive contributions to the enhancement of society;
- Integrate an acknowledgement of both national and international cultural orientations and practices.

Health and Physical Education in the New Zealand Curriculum has since then, been seen as an important learning area that encourages the learning of a range of new skills associated with physical activity, at the same time that “enhances, extends, informs and

critiques the deliberate use of play, exercise, sport and other forms of physical activity within an individual and societal context” (Culpan, 2005, p.3).

The New Zealand curriculum for HPE has been slowly evolving, and the document released in 2007 came mainly to reinforce the main goals presented in the previous document. However, physical education thinking has matured in important fields related with “socially-constructed views of the body; the educative, social, and moral value of sport; the use of sport as a social development tool; Physical Education and sport consumerism, sustainability, and globalisation; physical activity promotion; and the spirituality of sport” (Culpan, 2008, p.56). The 2007 New Zealand curriculum shows directions for learning, where is presented the vision of the curriculum, values, principles and key competencies that should be transmitted to the students in each learning area. Innovation, curiosity, inquiry, diversity, community and participation are some of the values that the curriculum gives emphasis, and the competencies that students are expected to achieve are thinking, managing self, relating to others, participating and contributing. These values and competencies derived from the curriculum’s vision that wants to form “young people who will be confident, connected, actively involved, lifelong learners” (Ministry of Education, 2007, p.7).

This new vision of the curriculum challenged what was evident in PE literature for the past three decades. Research suggested that the PE curriculum was primarily consisted of competitive team sport such as basketball, football, and volleyball, and as a result of that, physical education programmes were serving the “needs and interests of athletically gifted children at the expense of less athletic children whose need for regular physical activity and positive movement experiences was much greater” (Trost, 2004, p.324). Trost’s (2004) work suggests that these assumptions about learning and skill development are linked to a traditional approach to physical education, and that contemporary pedagogies are required if physical education goal is to achieve outcomes such as the improvement of self-management

behaviours, critical thinking, meaning making, and the ability to find strategies for enjoyment and self and collective development.

From 1999 onward, the curriculum also presents a clear view of sport. It sees sport within the framework of Sport Studies which is a Key Area of Learning, and similarly to its treatment of physical activity, the curriculum points the relevant educative value of sport. It states that Sport Studies are more than just sport performance and participation, it requires a holistic study of sport from a different perspective. The focal point is that:

...if schools offer organised school sport programmes in addition to the mandatory scheduled timetabled physical education, then like physical activity within physical education, it needs to be conceptualised and practised as having an educative function totally consistent with the philosophy of the PE curriculum (Culpan, 2005, p.10).

Despite the progress in the HPE curriculum, and its vision about sport, PE and school sport in New Zealand seem not to share the same perspective and goals.

### **2.3.2 School Sport in New Zealand.**

Sport is a significant component of New Zealand's culture that has been influenced by the English system, and that comes from physical education (Grant, 1992; Taggart, 1988). For that reason, many authors (Culpan, 2005; Grant, 1992; Murdoch, 1990) have emphasised the relevance of physical education in the promotion of positive values to those who participate in sport, as well as the educational value of sport in further develop physical education objectives such as enhancing skill and knowledge and personal qualities like cooperation, self-management and self-esteem. However, sport and physical education in New Zealand not always been on the same page (Culpan, 2005; Grant, 1992; Stothart, 2000, 2005). According

to Grant (1992), “sport in schools has been ‘the big boggy’, and the general feeling has been that the less physical education had to do with sport the more academic the subject could be” (p.307). Even though a “sport for all”<sup>2</sup> philosophy has been claimed in New Zealand, probably due to its proximity with the English system, this philosophy has been challenged by a more highly organised and structured sport that is essentially driven by the economy. This has made “sport less accessible, unavailable, and even unattractive for many students” (Grant, 1992, p.308).

Sports New Zealand (NZ) is the national agency for sport in New Zealand. It works in partnership with other national sports organisations (NSOs), regional sports trusts (RSTs), territorial authorities (TAs) and other sector groups if needed. Sports NZ main “role is to lead, invest and enable the sport sector to create a sport environment in which more New Zealanders participate, support and win” (Sport New Zealand (RSSS), 2017, p.18). Secondary school sport is organised and supported by Regional Sports Directors (RSDs) and the New Zealand secondary school sports council (NZSSSC) that coordinates National, North and South Island secondary school sport events and provides professional learning and support to Regional Sports Directors and sport coordinators.

In New Zealand, secondary schools are a significant part of the national sport infrastructure, and they understand the contribution that sport and PE can make to wider academic, social and sporting outcomes. However, “the provision of sport in schools it is seen as a significant investment. The main organisations that provide funding to support school sport are Sports NZ, the Ministry of Education, community trusts and the gaming sector, and parents” (Sport New Zealand (RSSS), 2017 p.25).

---

<sup>2</sup> “Inclusive ethos that promotes all forms of sport for sport's sake and assumes that individuals gain maximum meaning from participating” (Grant, 1992, pp.308-308)

To help cover the costs of running sport, many schools have increasingly turned to corporate sponsorship and/or benefit from a national campaign by agreeing to be part of a programme or accepting services/products. The reasons for sponsors to come on board varied, but essentially included: enhance their public image or public awareness; improve customer relationships and reach; be seen to be socially responsible; and gain publicity through increased exposure. To keep external funding, the main goal of school sport seems to have been shifting from helping their athletes to develop competencies such as critical thinking, meaning making, and enjoyment, to encourage performance and seeking good results. Skill development became crucial and required to achieve the outcomes needed to keep funding which links to a traditional approach, suggested by Trost, (2004) instead of an innovative, student-centred approach. This appears to have contributed to the decrease of the educative value of school sport that was initially attributed by the New Zealand curriculum, and to the lack of connection with Physical Education.

### **2.3.3 Physical Education Curriculum in the U.K. Context.**

With one of the five participants coming from the U.K., this section briefly outlines the U.K. system. Physical education in the U.K. has mainly evolved out of two traditions. One was physical training, initially associated with military drills and later Swedish therapeutic gymnastics, and the other organised games and competitive sport associated with nineteenth-century private boarding schools (Donovan, Jones, & Hardman, 2006). The development of sport as a relevant component of the Physical Education (PE) curriculum is connected to the precedents of English private schools, and how it was seen and treated by boarding schools. Initially, sport was used as a form of social control, and as argued by Donovan, Jones and Hardman (2006) this was “an early indicator of one of the ascribed roles in present day society



in school and out-of-school settings of sport being administered to assist in the resolution of anti-social behaviour” (p.17).

Sport was believed to be an agent for character development, social achievements and moral and ethical codes. This led to the idea of “participation outranking winning” (Donovan et al., 2006, p.17). The influence of private schools was very powerful not only during posterior developments in sport for curricular programmes but also for sport in the general society, as in the early twentieth-century, sport was quickly emerging as a relevant feature in the general physical education programmes all over the world (Donovan et al., 2006). However, increased concern with “the lack of success by their elite athletes, and the state of the health of young people in the 1980s, push PE and school sport to the spotlight” (Evans, Penny & Bryant, 1993, p. 329) (see also, Flintoff, 2003). As Kirk (1992) argued, “the debate over the relationship between school physical education and elite sport entered a much more public arena” (p. 3) (see also Penney, 2000; Penney & Harris, 1997).

Physical Education was for the first time recognised as a required subject in 1992, but due to the unclear relationship between PE and Sport, it was noticeable “an increasing emphasis in PE teaching on skill-based, performance-improving ... coaching ... [rather than on] physical education teaching [which] embodies a pupil-centred rationale” (Kay, 2003 p. 8).

More recently, the National Curriculum attempted to improve the quality of teaching as well as the learning experiences, and offer an extensive but balanced curricular framework for five to sixteen year olds. The intended development for Physical Education specifically, “reflected central government’s concern for a return to ‘traditional’ values and content in the school curriculum” (Donovan et al., 2006, p.19). However, in many schools, Games were the only compulsory activity area within PE curriculum throughout the four key stages<sup>3</sup>, and the apparent preference in the content of the physical education national curriculum, only

---

<sup>3</sup> Key Stage is a stage of the state education system setting the educational knowledge expected of students at various ages.

emphasised what was already being widely practised. Since 2014, the aim of the National Curriculum for PE has been to make sure that the students:

- Develop competence to excel in a broad range of physical activities
- Are physically active for sustained periods of time
- Engage in competitive sport and activities
- Live healthy, active lives.

Despite being a recognised subject, PE seems to be in the shadows of sport, and the importance given to its curriculum appears to be mainly in favour of developing sport. This is reinforced by the fact that the government has been trying to raise PE and sport profile through policies that increased funding and support for school sport and capital investment, such as the “New Opportunities for Physical Education and Sport (New Opportunities Fund)” (Bailey, 2005, p.78). However, the increased funding for school sport “has been taken by some schools as a justification for further reducing curriculum time, in favour of extended out-of-hours activities” (Bailey, 2005, p.78).

This constant pursuit of achievement in sport, especially at elite international levels, has contributed to considerable discussion and a focus for government intervention regarding the role of schools in working toward elite success, and this has led to some “tension between PE on one hand, and competitive team sports on the other”. (Houlihan, 2000 p. 172). A strong political orientation from the government culminated in a curriculum constructed around conventional disciplines and traditional content, where “PE was seen as being at best well-meaning but essentially muddled, while sport was lauded as promoting positive personal and social values and outcomes” (Houlihan, 2000 p.137).

### **2.3.4 School Sport in the U.K.**

Sport in the U.K. started to emerge during the 1950s, as a vehicle for mass participation in physical activity denominated as “Sport for All” (Coghlan & Webb, 1990; Green, 2004; Henry, 1993, 2001; Houlihan, 1991, 1997). However, in 1995, with the publication of *Sport: Raising the Game* (Department of National Heritage, 1995) and *A Sporting Future for All* (Department for Culture, Media and Sport) in 2000, it was possible to observe a shift in policy priorities (Green, 2004; Oakley & Green, 2001). Despite the fact that more recently, in late 2002, *Game Plan* (Department for Culture, Media and Sport/Strategy Unit) attempted to provide a wider analysis of sport and physical activity, and recognised the need for significant structural reforms, this document, still places significant emphasis on “improving international performance” (p. 9). For that reason, school sport and PE became progressively connected to the development of physical skills (Munrow 1955), and motor skills (Knapp 1963). Since then and until now, the development of skill in both school sport and PE has been directly linked to all the essential movement competencies needed to play a sport (Bailey, Morley, & Dismore, 2009). However, there has been an attempt, through the emergence of curriculum models such as Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU) (Bunker & Thorpe 1982), to balance the need for technique development, required in sport participation, with decision/making, tactical understanding of the game and other aspects of sport, not directly linked with performance. Despite this attempt, the powerful intervention of the Secretary of State, supported by the sport lobby, forced the National Curriculum for PE to “surrender” (Penney & Evans, 1999, p. 57) to educational objectives associated with “planning” and “evaluating” in favour of “performing” (Houlihan & Green, 2006, p.173).

To maintain an integrated sport development strategy revolved around the model of the sport development continuum, since the late 1980s, the Great Britain Sport Council attempted to conceptualise sport, comprising four tightly integrated elements: foundation, participation,

performance and excellence. In order to support mass participation and elite development and potentially antagonistic organisations, the model, that sought a share of Sport Council and later National Lottery funding, provided a degree of conceptual coherence to the broad range of investment required. This model had the ability to link the interests of elite performers with those whose intentions were general participation, and the government was not prepared to accept the fact that this model provided support for a broader view of PE in schools (Donovan et al., 2006; Houlihan & Green, 2006). The relationship between school sport and PE in the U.K. system is undeniable, and the funding is frequently attributed to both sport and PE simultaneously. Because of that, physical education has been seen as a branch of sport for those who intend to practice some kind of sport at a participation level, as Houlihan and Green (2006, p. 186) argued:

There has been a clear increase in the range of sports coaching and competition, which will enable a greater proportion of the students to be involved at performance level. There has also been an increase in the opportunities for involvement at the participation level through the increased allocation of time to physical education within the curriculum and through opportunities for more extensive community use, some of which includes students using facilities outside school hours.

As stated by Houlihan and Green (2006), “for many athletes involvement at elite level also began during the school year” (p.181). This reinforces the idea that school sport in the U.K. is largely focused on results, and performance development, as he also argues that secondary school is seen as a “period where athletes begin to compete and move into or towards the elite ranks, with the school being frequently the place where athletes are introduced to their sport” (p.181).

## **2.4 PE Teachers' preparation**

In trying to identify the participants' practices and beliefs about teaching and coaching it was crucial understanding the process by which they have gone through to become PE teacher and coaches. Questions have been raised about "whether and how teacher education makes a difference in teachers' practice, effectiveness, entry, and retention in teaching" (Darling-Hammond, Chung, & Frelow, 2002, p.286), and for that reason it is essential to start by taking into consideration the definition and purpose of teacher education. In 1996, Tella suggested this definition:

Teacher education is to be seen as a continuous process starting with initial (pre-service) teacher education, followed by in-service and continuing education. It is teacher education that counts, not teacher training, which, more or less implicitly, refers to old-type seminars or teachers colleges, underscoring practical skills and experience-based practices and techniques (p. 64).

This is a curious definition that recognises that teacher education is a continuum, and that initial teacher education should not be seen as the end of learning, but as part of an ongoing process. It also acknowledges the practicality of teacher education, and the need of having on-site experiences rather than just being exposed to lectures on theory, whether they are about teaching methods or educational philosophy (Al-Ruwaih, 2005). The main goal of teacher education in Tella's (1996) eyes is to "create a pedagogically thinking teacher, who at the same time is a full professional in educational issues, with adequate amounts of theoretical background knowledge and a reflectively critical attitude towards the challenges encountered in the teaching profession" (p. 65).

The constant changes in teacher education have been identified across literature in teacher education and “How successfully schools, colleges and universities prepare students to meet these changes depends on developing new patterns of teacher education” (Thomas, 2002, p. Xiii). For this reason, it is important to characterise teacher preparation in both New Zealand and the U.K. contexts.

#### **2.4.1 The New Zealand context.**

The New Zealand Curriculum Framework (NZCF) was released in the 1990s when the initial teacher education (ITE) was provided by a small number of state-owned colleges of education (located in the main cities across the country) (Smith & Philpot, 2011). But, followed by a period of deregulation of the tertiary education market, at the end of the century, teacher education was offered by a diversity of sources including universities and private organisations (Smith & Philpot, 2011).

In New Zealand, Health and Physical Education in primary and intermediate schools is usually taught by generalist teachers, while in the secondary schools is the responsibility of HPE specialists. “Although, all graduate-diplomas require an undergraduate degree for entry, the specific nature of the degree varies within and across providers” (Smith & Philpot, 2011, p.73). Many applicants finish their undergraduate degrees without being in a HPE specific or related courses. These graduate-diploma programmes last for one year and have a more generalist nature, which means that the time available for HPE studies is limited. “Given that very few of the graduates who enter the programmes have any undergraduate study in the field of HPE the appropriateness of the one-year primary qualification for the preparation of teachers of HPE remains contentious” (Smith & Philpot, 2011, p.73).

According to the Ministry of Education (2011), the initial teacher education programmes for Health and Physical Education in secondary school contain one-year graduate

diplomas, four-year professional bachelor's degrees in education or physical education and associate degrees that combine undergraduate and ITE qualifications. However, most providers offer one-year graduate-diplomas in education specialising in HPE, and with that, they draw graduates' attention to the teaching profession, but at the same time, they only serve a particular niche in the ITE market (Smith & Philpot, 2011). "These programs comprise a mix of curriculum, general education and learning theory, professional studies, practicum experiences, and cultural studies" (Smith & Philpot, 2011, p.73). However, there seems to exist limited consensus "amongst teacher educators as to what content knowledge is appropriate for entry into the graduate HPE ITE programs. Many entrants in HPE ITE programs still enter with a strong science background, but little background in health or socio-cultural studies" (p.73).

#### **2.4.2 The U.K. context.**

As it has been happening all over the globe, England and Wales have witnessed a significant amount of relevant changes and developments in teacher education and training over the last twenty years. The department for education and employment (DfEE) Circular released in 1992 required that:

- Students should spend a greater percentage of their training course in schools. Trainee teachers undertaking the Postgraduate Certificate in Education are required to spend 24 of their 36-week course in school-based training (32 weeks in the case of students on a 4-year undergraduate training programme;
- An equal partnership was to be developed between schools and Higher Education Institutions in the provision of training;
- There was a transfer of funds from Higher Education providers to schools to allow for these developments to take place.

Later, in 1997, the same department Circular (10/97) moved forward and proposed other important steps that help determine the quality of initial teacher training: the introduction of National Standards for the award of Qualified Teacher Status; the promotion of teacher training curricula for primary English and Mathematics; standardising requirements for all initial teacher training programmes.

In the U.K., trainee teachers are now being required to spend more time in schools to develop their practical skills and to learn from teachers, as a result of increased importance being paid to the role of the school in teacher training, as a partner of the training institution. (Calderhead & Shorrock, 2003; Partington, 1999). One of the key features in initial teacher training according to Williams and Soares (2002), has been the “increase in the scale and significance of the school's contribution to the training process” (p. 91). The process of teacher training was straightforward in the past, as it was largely centred on subject knowledge. According to Alkin (1992):

...the assumption was that teachers needed to know only the content that they were expected to teach to children or youth. ... the rule of thumb was that the teacher should have command of the subject matter that was to be covered by the students or, perhaps, a bit more to distinguish the teacher from the students (p. 136).

However, teachers' preparation requirements were forced to change due to a new perspective that saw teachers as people who had a profound impact on their pupils. This was a process that gradually evolved over the years. Alkin (1992) looked at the process of development of the teacher education curriculum and recognised that the training programmes moved away from the acquisition of “modest subject-matter competence” to:



Elaborate courses of study that include extensive involvement in the conventional liberal arts and sciences; exposure to what came to be called the educational foundations of philosophy, sociology, psychology, and the like; satisfaction of requirements of methods courses aimed at developing understanding of and skill in teaching the various school subjects; and extensive participation in elementary and secondary schools as Practical settings for developing skill in integrating knowledge of students, school subjects, and methods, and for satisfying a student teaching requirement (p. 137).

## **2.5 Coaches' preparation**

“Sports’ coaching is an occupation, but remains distant from becoming an established, regulated profession” (Maclean & Lorimer, 2016, p. 3) but there are very few studies that identify the main challenges precluding sports coaching from reaching a professionalised (Duffy et al., 2011; Gray, 2011; Taylor & Garratt, 2010). In particular, “sports’ coaching has not established an empirically tested knowledge base, ethical code of conduct, rights to practice and self-regulatory process” (Maclean & Lorimer, 2016, p. 3). Furthermore, coaching roles have become more and more stratified, being associated with educational, health and business fields (Nash, Sproule & Horton 2008).

It is suggested in the literature that to increase their learning and develop their coaching, coaches access numerous methods. These include coach education, continuous professional development (CPD), learning by doing, observation of others, clinics; mentoring and interactions but not all these forms of learning that ultimately contribute to coach development are not valued the same way by the coaches (Erickson, Bruner, MacDonald, & Cote, 2008). Despite the fact that coaching education has recently received more attention due to the higher expectation of coaching roles a significant literature still suggests that it is not the main source

for developing coaching knowledge. In an attempt to improve the quality and nature of exposure of coaching around the world, the International Council for Coach Education (ICCE) was created. Participating nations of the ICCE, such as New Zealand and the U.K. usually “have their own national governing body for coach education and certification” (Erikson, et al., 2008, p.528). However, and despite these attempts, for most coaches, informal experiences, such as learning through interaction with other coaches and experience are more valuable (Cushion, Armour, & Jones, 2003; Erickson et al., 2008; Gilbert & Trudel, 2001, 2006; Hassanin, Light, & Macfarlane, 2018; Mallett, Rossi, & Tinning, 2008; Nelson, Cushion, & Potrac, 2006).

There are three main resources for coach learning suggested in the literature (see, for example, Erickson, et al., 2008; Maclean & Lorimer, 2016), which are formal; informal and non-formal. Formal learning, usually culminates in certification. An example of this is coach education that has a standardised structure where presence is compulsory and where certification is only awarded if the individual meets the expected criteria. At the other end, informal learning involves lifelong experiences where individuals obtain and accumulate knowledge, beliefs, perspectives and skills from ongoing experiences and interaction with others and their surroundings. Literature shows that “sports coaches devote over 1,000 hours in informal learning situations and as little as 10 hours in formal coach education” (Maclean & Lorimer, 2016, p.5). Non-formal learning has been located between formal and informal learning. It is similar to formal learning because it is structured, methodical and educational but does not have certification as the end product. Clinics, seminars and workshops are some examples of non-formal learning.

As this study looks at teachers and coaches, and most of the participants had both teaching and coaching roles, it is important to consider teaching and coaching approaches to better understand their practice for both roles.

## **2.6 Approaches to teaching and coaching**

The aim of this study was to identify the teachers' and coaches' beliefs and approaches to games teaching and coaching, therefore, it was essential in this last section to explain the concept of student/athlete-centred and teacher/coach-centred, two terms widely used not only in Sport and PE literature but also across research in education. It was also relevant to enrich the description of each concept by briefly identifying some of the approaches that are commonly associated with each term.

### **2.6.1 Teacher/Coach-centred.**

The term teacher/coach-centred has been used for a long period of time. It refers to an approach to teaching and/or coaching where the teacher/coach is in control of the learning process. The most common strategy used to pass on the knowledge is instruction (Schuh, 2004), leaving no margin for student/athlete's development of creativity, decision-making, and input during the sessions. A teacher/coach-centred approach is closely linked to behaviourism where "the teacher manipulates the learning situation to obtain the desired outcomes" (Schuh, 2004, p.835). Behaviourism sets on an epistemological assumption that sees knowledge as an object that "can be transmitted from person to person", and "encourages an approach to teaching that typically takes a 'training' approach that emphasises the use of feedback and reward systems to change observable behaviour" (Curry, 2012, p.75). As the name suggests, in a teacher-centred approach, the teacher/coach is in the centre of the learning process, and it is often seen as the sole barrier of the knowledge, as his role is to transmit the knowledge he/she possesses to the students/athletes.

Teacher-centred approaches have also been associated with more traditional approaches to teaching games and sport as they tend to focus on skill acquisition and outcomes.

### ***2.5.1.1 Traditional Approach to teaching and coaching***

Although there are some core features of what is often call a traditional approach that have proven to be strong and resilient, there is no one clear, traditional approach to teaching games. The term “traditional” used in this study is the same used by Light et al. (2015) but in this case, it is also in regard to teaching approaches that emphasise the mastery of skills or technical elements and lean towards being teacher-centred, referred by Bunker and Thorpe (1982) as technical approach. In some ways, this is very similar to Dewey’s (1938) contrasting of progressive education with traditional education.

Traditional approaches to teaching games are linked to “direct instruction”, command and a teacher-centred way of teaching. “Direct instruction” has been commonly used for most of the teachers for years. This norm was developed in the 1940s under the influence of Ralph Tyler, a curriculum reformist (Griffin & Butler, 2005). In 1949, Tyler’s *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction* was published by the University of Chicago, where the intent was to help solve problems such as identifying challenges in learning and practice. He argued that “...teachers should develop specific objectives for their courses, develop activities and programs to reach the goals, and then prepare tests to determine if the goals had been reached” (Griffin & Butler, 2005, p.35).

Historically, the use of the technical model is, in a way, the result of the interpretation of physical educators of Ralph Tyler’s ideas (1949). This led to the development of a step-by-step process in the physical education curriculum in an attempted to provide a blueprint for teaching. Key features of this approach were described by Kirk and Tinning (1992), such as “the use of objectives in planning programs and instructional episodes; the selection of subject matter and teaching strategies based on intended learning outcomes expressed as behavioural objectives; and assessment of the behavioural outcomes of instruction involving measurement

and quantification” (p.1). The format usually followed in the traditional approach is warm up, followed by skill development, introduction of a modified game and lastly the formal game. The philosophy of the model is that as soon as the fundamental skills are learned, the capacity to play the games will be an inherent process, where students will be capable of playing the game and apply the skills practised and place them into the context of the game. The assessment tasks “tend to be based on skill, measuring a student’s ability to perform a skill in isolation and not on their actual ability to play the game” (Forrest, Webb, & Pearson, 2006, p.2). Knowledge and a behaviourist view are the base for the lessons in the technical model with teachers communicating through monologue (Light, 2003). Students are instructed of what to do and how to do while progressing to the game, by using rules and conditions (Hopper & Bell, 2001) that are frequently dependent on the students’ acquisition or not of fundamental skills (Light, 2003).

### **2.6.2 Student/Athlete-centred.**

Opposite to a teacher/coach-centred approach, a student/athlete-centred approach has been described in the literature as a constructive process where teachers and coaches are facilitators, and their main role is to guide the learners’ discovery, generating experiences that are important and meaningful to the student/athlete. As said by Rogers (1983) a long time ago, the “significant learning combines the logical and the intuitive, the intellect and the feelings, the concept and the experience, the idea and the meaning” (p.20). For many authors including Schuh (2004), a student-centred approach has “a holistic view of the learner in a complex living system that extends well beyond the classroom wall in both time and space” (p.835).

Student/athlete-centred approaches have been associated with more innovative approaches to games teaching and sport. While these approaches focus on developing better performance, the process of learning involved can generate positive experiences that are

enjoyable, satisfying and which facilitate learning how to learn (see, Light, 2003). The learning experiences provided by this pedagogy tend to empower students and players by creating a supportive environment for learning that can also contribute toward positive social, moral and personal development (see, Dyson, 2005; Light, 2013; Sheppard & Mandigo, 2009).

#### ***2.5.2.1 Game-Based Approaches***

The ideas supporting GBAs can be traced far back in the 1960s and earlier in Wade's (1967) and Mahlo's (1974) work, initially published in German in 1969, where he studied gameplay phases and presented the complexity of tactical actions during the game. However, Bunker and Thorpe's (1982) thoughts of teaching games revealed to have a more significant and lasting influence. (Light, Quay, Harvey & Mooney, 2014).

The broader more inclusive terms of Game-Based Approaches (GBAs) and Game Centred Approaches (GCA) have been used because of the number of similar approaches that have emerged since the first publication on TGfU (Bunker & Thorpe, 1982). However, through this study, I use the umbrella term GBAs to include all other similar approaches. Over the past thirty years, many of the approaches that base learning in modified games were developed in response to problems that were identified by Bunker and Thorpe within traditional teaching methods. In contrast to the traditional approach that is a behaviourist oriented approach, GBAs sit upon a constructivist perspective.

Although it is difficult to pinpoint direct influence of the thinking about games teaching of Wade, Mahlo, Bunker and Thorpe and others, they emerged from radical changes in thinking about teaching and learning during the 1960s. The work of Piaget (1975/85), the publication of Vygostky's (1978) work in English from the early 1960s ideas, and the continuing influence of Dewey's (see, 1916/97) ideas on education drove constructivist and informed views about teaching that TGfU is very similar. This link to constructivism has encouraged a wide range of

researchers in physical education to suggest how constructivism underpins TGfU and other GBAs (see, Curry & Light, 2014).

Vygostky (1978) is considered the father of social constructivism and sees the construction of knowledge as a process underpinned by several cultural factors developed during human evolution. In GBAs, the interaction between students is presented as a key factor to their understanding of the game and problem solving, and social constructivists believed that the construction of knowledge occurs through and is enriched by social interaction. In their vision, learning is built through interactions with others that happen in a specific socio-cultural context. This can be once again an indicator that social constructivism is profoundly linked to GBAs development.

### **3. Theoretical Framework**

As explained in the Methodology (chapter 4), the use of constructivist grounded theory (CGT) delayed the application of formal theory in this study. When using grounded theory, a preconceived theoretical framework blocks the potential development of a theory grounded in the data in behalf of a conceptual description of a problem or pathway that might be, or not, relevant for the research (Charmaz, 2014; Glaser & Holton, 2007). At the time of the study, where I used formal theory in the CGT process, learning theories that sit upon constructivist epistemology seemed most appropriate. They see learning as a process of transformation and adaptation, through which learner's construct their knowledge, rather than a process of adding on new information. Social and learning theories also provide a framework for understanding the ways in which learning occurs as a social process that is profoundly situated in social and cultural contexts, which was the case in this study. These learning theories deny the notion of knowledge as being an object that is separate to the knower. They recognise the importance of the activities, existing knowledge, and experiences that learners draw on to interpret learning experiences and make sense of them. They also see learning as something that is ongoing, uninterrupted and shaped by social interaction and culture instead of something that simply occurs in disconnected, prescribed and formal contexts (Bruner, 1996; Dewey, 1916/97; Vygotsky 1978).

Despite the fact that the physical education and the sport field, due to its practical nature, only developed interest in constructivist theories considerably late compared with other areas such science and mathematics (Curry, 2012; Davis & Sumara, 2003; Fox, 2001), research and practice in physical education and sport (regarding games teaching) have been greatly influenced by constructivist theories over the past two decades as a means of understanding



learning (see, for example, Gréhaigne, Richard, & Griffin, 2005; Kirk & Macdonald, 1998; Kirk & MacPhail, 2002; Light, 2006, 2008, 2011; Light & Fawns, 2003; Pissanos & Allison, 1993; Rink, 2001; Rink, French, & Tjeerdsma, 1996; Wallian & Chang 2007). Since the development of TGfU (Bunker & Thorpe, 1982) and other game-based approaches such as Game Sense, researchers working in games teaching have progressively drawn on constructivism to evolve pedagogy and understand learning in and through games (Curry, 2012; Gréhaigne, Richard, & Griffin, 2005).

In grounded theory, although the study is a critical product and not just a description, the development of theory is still the priority of the researcher, and for that reason, theoretical sampling and the emergence of formal theory, with all its variations in the data outlined, is pivotal (Hood, 2007). I had to have a broad overview of the literature in order to fulfil the requirements of the University of Canterbury for my confirmation at the end of the first year of my PhD where I identified a broad scope of possible theoretical frameworks for the study. At first, I recognised the likely suitability of constructivism, especially socio-cultural constructivism, because the role it plays in the shaping, learning and construction of knowledge. Later in the study, after focus coding (where categories were developed) and by following the process of developing theoretical categories (theoretical sampling) (Charmaz 2014), it became clear to me that a theoretical framework underpinned by constructivist learning theories was appropriate.

Other theories that revealed to be linked to a constructivist stance also emerged and were added on to the theoretical framework. As a social constructivist, Dewey's (1938) work on experience and education was of great importance as the analysis of the data has shown the relevance of experience, interaction, environment and context. His work suggests that individuals interact with their social setting, and that interaction influences their experience and learning. His work aligns with occupational socialisation theory (Lawson, 1983) that sees

the process of becoming a teacher as an ongoing, lifelong process. This theory also recognises the importance of social interaction during crucial stages of learning and education, and even though it is mainly a descriptive theory, its roots seem to sit on a constructivist epistemology. In the application of theory and concepts to the analysis, I also used Lortie's (1975) concept of apprenticeship of observation as part of the theoretical framework as it accounts the strong relationship between experience, beliefs and practice.

### **3.1 Views on constructivism: Two main versions**

Under the umbrella term constructivist perspectives, there is a wide range of distinct perspectives on cognitive, social and socio-cultural constructivism, which has been identified as a problem in teaching practice and research (see, for example, Davis & Sumara, 2003).

According to Cobb (1996), despite the fact that cognitive and socio-cultural constructivism perspectives might seem contradictory, leading researchers and teachers to choose between them, they overlap considerably. He argues that it is more beneficial to see the relationship between them instead of having to make a mandatory choice. He suggests that combining the two perspectives enables a view that consider learning as both, a process of individual organization of knowledge and "a process of enculturation that occurs while participating in cultural practices, frequently while interacting with others" (p. 45). Catherine Fosnot (1996) shares Cobb's view and argues that rather than questioning which approach should be used, it would be better to understand "what the interplay between them is" (p. 23). Therefore, in response to the problems around the many views on constructivism, she suggests sets of core or common themes from the various forms of constructivism that have been shared by researchers in education and physical education (see, for example, Davis & Sumara, 2003; Fosnot, 1996; Rovegno & Dolly, 2006). In order to generate some common ground between

all the different constructivist perspectives Fosnot (1996, pp. 29 - 30) suggests that there are five principles of constructivism:

- Learning is development. Learning requires invention and self-organization on the part of the learner;
- Disequilibrium facilitates learning. Challenging, open-ended investigations in realistic contexts should be offered, thus allowing learners to explore and generate many possibilities;
- Reflective abstraction is the driving force of learning. As meaning makers, humans seek to organize and generalize across experiences;
- Cognition and learning arise from dialogue within a community;
- Learning proceeds toward the development of structures. As learners struggle to make meaning, progressive structural shifts in perspective are constructed that result in the development of 'big ideas'.

With these principles, Fosnot (1996) attempts to capture the essence of the existing perspectives, both psychological and social. At the same time, she presents a psychological perspective talking about personal experience, and how disequilibrium can lead to a state of cognitive equilibrium through the construction of ways of knowing. She also recognises that there are moments where learners need to reflect and discuss those experiences and that by engaging in activity, reflection, and conversation with others, learning occurs.

Piaget (1975/1985) is widely known as the father of individual or psychological constructivism (Proulx, 2006) with constructivism usually split into the two broad camps of psychological and social constructivism (Davis & Sumara, 2003; Fosnot, 1996; Phillips, 1997). These two forms sit at opposite ends of a spectrum (Cobb, 1996). At one end is the Geneva

school of thought with psychological constructivism proposed by Jean Piaget and on the other side the Russian school of thought, with Lev Vygotsky (1978) introducing social constructivism. In Piaget's (Piaget, 1975/1985) cognitive constructivist theory, humans need to undergo a process of constructing their knowledge by drawing on existing knowledge as they do not immediately understand or articulate the knowledge given to them. According to him, this process happens through experience. Later on, led by others work such as Von Glasersfeld (1995), focus on individual sense and meaning-making started to emerge in Psychological constructivism.

At the other end of the spectrum Lev Vygotsky (1978) recognises and gives emphasis to the influence of social and cultural contexts in learning, and as stated in Light's (2008) work, cognition occurs beyond the body. Social constructivism also draws on the work of theorists such as Bruner and Dewey that similarly demonstrate the role of social processes in learning (Dewey, 1916/97; Bruner, 1996). In DeVries' work (2000), she explains that the differences between Piaget's and Vygotsky's theories can be debated in terms of:

...nature of the stimulus, the nature of knowledge and psychological instruments, the origin of the nature of self-regulation, the nature of novelty in intellectual development, the direction of development, the concept of social development and the role of language in development (p.192).

Due to its emphasis on learning as a social process, and to the fact that it can be employed to social dimensions such as social interaction, collective thinking and collaborative problem solving, social constructivism was very helpful for understanding and theorising the learning that took place in the process of becoming a PE teacher and a coach. However, both constructivist perspectives were relevant as the teachers and coaches in the study constructed

their own interpretations, beliefs and inclinations towards teaching and coaching through their current and previous experiences, existing knowledge and their environment.

### **3.1.1 Psychological constructivism.**

Psychological or cognitive constructivism is linked to Jean Piaget who was a Swiss biologist (Piaget, 1975/1985), with its origin in the field of cognitive science. Piaget completed his PhD in biology. He looked at how molluscs adapt to new habitats, and his emphasis on learning as a process of adaptation is evident in the biological roots of his theory, as it formed the basis of his ideas on human learning (Proulx, 2006). He makes a comparison between the:

“mollusc’s new habitat and the learner’s ‘new knowledge’ or ‘new experiences’ and the way in which the learner adapts him or herself to the ‘new knowledge’ and modifies it in relation to his or her evolving structure of thinking” (as cited in Curry, 2012, p.81).

However, Davis and Sumara (2003) argue that some of the terms used by Piaget in his writing such as “construct”, “structure” and “construction” can suggest that learning is a mechanical process instead of bringing the unfolding of knowledge from experience.

The psychological version of constructivism is seen as the intrapersonal dimensions of learning where the individuals make meaning from it (Light, 2008). According to psychological constructivism, learning is an ongoing cyclical process that happens at an individual level and represents a psychological process where learners construct their meaning and interpret and adapt in accordance to the learning experience. For Piaget, the process of cognitive adaptation challenges the idea that learning comes from objective knowledge and its passive adaptation. This process of adaptation requires re-establishing cognitive equilibrium after disturbing the stability pre-existent of knowledge and adapting to this disruption by

relying on existing knowledge and experience to make sense of it and adjust to it through change (Piaget, 1975/1985). He believes that it is possible to react to perturbation through accommodation of the new knowledge and by transforming that knowledge or experience assimilation. According to him, these are to processes that can alter learners' knowledge and cognitive structures (Piaget, 1975/1985).

For Piaget (1970), assimilation is seen as “the integration of external elements into evolving or completed (cognitive) structures” (p.706) and accommodation as “any modification of an assimilatory scheme or structure by the elements it assimilates” (p.708) that “assures the continuity of structures and the integration of new elements to these structures” (p.707). Both processes are used simultaneously and alternately throughout life. However, Piaget believes in “a developmental process that results when a blend of maturation and experience creates conditions that make assimilation alone inadequate” (Reinking, Labbo & McKenna, 2000, p.114). Piaget's theory assumes that “assimilation and accommodation are continuous and frequently inseparable actions that require learners to pursue equilibrium between incoming information and the cognitive structures that are essential to interpret that information” (de Aguiar & Light, 2018, p.2). Nurrenbern (2001) also adds that “assimilation and accommodation are entwined processes that moderate an individual's response to the environment and any subsequent readjustment of existing schemas, or construction of new schemas, in a cyclic feedback manner” (p.1109).

Piaget's psychological constructivism, sees learning as involving the whole person in the process of change and adaption instead of just a process of adding new knowledge. Even though the role of social environment and social interaction is not neglected in psychological constructivism, it is seen as accommodating rather than central to learning (Phillips, 1997) which suggests that it fails to account the relevance of interaction with significant others and their contribution to the learner development from the social-cultural perspective (Pass, 2004).

### **3.1.2 Social constructivism.**

Social constructivism considers the role and contribution of social and cultural contexts in learning and sees learning as a collective process spread across the individual's world instead of cognition and learning as an individual process (Bruner, 1996; Vygotsky, 1978). Social constructivists see interaction and the context as agents for generating change and transformation, and as playing a very important role in the learning process. Social constructivism had its origins in the work of Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1978) but was later developed by others such as Bruner and Dewey who gave an important contribution to his perspective. Vygotsky (1978) sees development and learning as a process that turns numerous cultural factors, acquired during human development (external social phenomena), into cognitive tools that are later used by the individual. Scholars that recognise and emphasise the importance of the social dimensions in learning commonly refer to their work as following *Social* or *Vygotskian* constructivism. Similar to Vygotsky, they believe that learners are able to make meaning of abstract concepts through experiences that are deeply influenced by social interaction. Reflecting on Vygotsky's (1978) and Lave and Wenger's (1991) work, Davis and Sumara (1997) argue that our interpretations and the meaning and understanding we generate emerge from complex social experiences.

For Vygotsky, the development of thought occurs from both the experiences and the maturation process of the individual, and he claims that only when individuals are engaged in a social activity, meaningful learning occurs. He highlights not only the social and cultural nature of learning but also the crucial role of language for the learning process. Contemporary research on social constructivism is led by Vygotsky's initial thoughts on language as it views dialogue as a key aspect of learning, as humans jointly generate meaning through interaction (Fosnot, 1996).

Vygotsky's views on how learning occurs differ from Piaget's work as he emphasises learning as a social process. Even though Piaget does not ignore the role of social environment and social interaction, opposite to Vygotsky, that is not his focus. While both agree that learning occurs when humans draw on existing knowledge to make sense or meaning from experiences and activities, Vygotsky emphasises the importance of interaction with social groups. He believed that individual development and learning are shaped by cultural tools, social interaction, and activity and that the acquisition of knowledge of the world and culture is incorporated and embodied through participating with others and working together (Palincsar, 1998).

Vygotsky (1978) challenged Piaget's ideas by saying that learning occurs on the *social plane* before it happens on the *mental plane* (see, for example Bidell, 1988; Rogoff, 1988), and also challenged the use of *scientific* concepts by introducing the term *spontaneous* concepts (see, for example, Fosnot, 1996). He refers to spontaneous concepts, as those concepts developed *naturally* by children through their everyday experiences, and emphasises the idea that children can learn informally. However, he believed in children's ability to develop, through mental practice, more abstract thinking and scientific concepts. When Vygotsky (1978) introduced to constructivism the social aspect of learning, he also established the concept of the "zone of proximal development" (ZPD) (p.86). According to this concept, students are able to solve problems (under the guidance or in collaboration with others) beyond their actual developmental level, but that are within their level of potential development. As Vygotsky (1978) stated, the ZPD is "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86).

In Curry's (2012) study on the implementation of TGfU in an Australian elite independent school she explains how:



When children were tested on tasks on their own, they rarely did as well as when they were working in collaboration with an adult. It was not always the case that the adult was teaching them how to perform the task; sometimes that the process of engagement with the adult enabled them to refine their thinking or their performance, to make it more effective. (p.83)

Vygotsky's (1978) research on ZPD concluded that adult guidance was a fundamental and necessary component for a more abstract, conceptual learning, but that the ZPD varied from child to child. He also kept his view that dialogue was crucial to this process:

The specifically human capacity for language enables children to provide for auxiliary tools in the solution of difficult tasks, to overcome impulsive action, to plan a solution to a problem prior to its execution, and to master their own behaviour. Signs and words serve children first and foremost as a means of social contact with other people. The cognitive and communicative functions of language then become the basis of a new and superior form of activity in children, distinguishing them from animals. (pp. 28–29)

The social constructivist perspective on learning from Vygotsky, Dewey and Bruner emphasising the importance of social interaction has been applied in different ways in research on physical education (see, for example Ennis, 2000; Light & Fawns, 2003; Rovegno & Dolly, 2006).

### **3.2 Developments of Vygotsky work**

Bruner (1996) it is known as being the most prominent scholar in further developing Vygotsky's work. Initially, his line of thought followed Piaget's work but from the 1960s his views on constructivism were influenced by Vygotsky's work. Bruner decided to explore the idea that people interpret their ongoing learning through different sets of experiences inclinations, and knowledge they bring with them and abandoned Piaget's line of thought on intra-personal dimensions of learning. He further accentuated Vygotsky's notion that learning is a social process, and suggested that learning is deeply tied to social experience, not only in specific learning experiences, but also in the individual's participation in the social and cultural practices in larger social and cultural settings, (Bruner, 1996).

#### **3.2.1 Socio-cultural constructivism.**

Bruner's work on constructivism underlines the idea that those learning, are able to form new ideas based on their current knowledge as well as their past knowledge, and also sees learning as an active process. He initiated a curriculum change based on the notion of learning as a dynamic process and also emphasised how the construction of new knowledge is only possible through social interaction. Bruner's work has its origin on Dewey's views of discovering knowledge. Based on that, Bruner (1996) developed the concept of "discovery learning" that entails that students construct their knowledge and do this by using a cognitive structure or coding system to organise and categorise information. According to him, the best way of developing a coding system is through a discovery process instead of being told by the teacher, and that is why communication between the learner and teacher is a key concept.

Bruner's (1996) coding system or cognitive structure is known as a mental process that allows the learner to organise experiences and obtain meaning from them, and also provides the opportunity for the learner to push past the given information and construct new concepts.

According to Curry (2012), the learner is usually able to take fragments of their previous knowledge and experiences and “organize them to make sense of what they know, then base further concepts and solve additional problems based upon a combination of what they have already processed and what they think should be processed next” (pp.83-84).

### **3.2.2 Dewey’s “Experience and education”.**

John Dewey (see, 1938/97) can also be seen as sharing a social constructivist view. Dewey’s attention was caught by Vygotsky’s questions about the perpetuation and advancement of cultural forms as he found them essential. As with Vygotsky (1978) and Bruner (1996), Dewey also attributed great importance to the role of cultural forms and meaning-making in the elevation and preservation of superior forms of human thought. This has contributed to the emphasis of his work on the relationship between experience and learning, as he argues that “there is an organic connection existing between experience and education” (Dewey, 1938, p.12). For him, education and experience can almost be seen as synonymous, as education is completely explained in relation to experience, as he makes clear:

The concept of education is a constant reorganizing or reconstructing of experience. It has all the time an immediate end, and so far as activity is educative. It reaches that end—the direct transformation of the quality of experience... We thus reach a technical definition of education: It is that reconstruction or reorganization of experience which adds to the meaning of experience and which increases ability to direct the course of subsequent experience. (1916, p. 59)

For this reason, it is pivotal to understand what Dewey means by experience. Garforth (1966) offers valuable considerations on this:

He [Dewey] does not mean by this [experience] the stored up product of the past; nor does he mean simply the immediacy of the experienced present; nor the mere acceptance of environmental impact by a passive recipient; nor does he contrast experience with thought or reason. Experience is continuous from past through present to future; it is not static but dynamic, moving, in process. It is not unilateral but, as Dewey would say, transactional', for the experient is modified by his environment and the environment by the experient in a constant reciprocal relationship. (p. 13)

For Dewey what characterises an experience is the engagement of the individual with their environment that he refers to as the “transaction”. “An experience is always what it is because of a transaction taking place between the individual and, what at the time, constitutes the environment” (Dewey, 1938, p. 43). For him, experience involves a process of “trying” and “undergoing” (Dewey 1916, p. 104) which means a “dual process of understanding and influencing the world around us, as well as being influenced and changed ourselves by that experience” (Ord, 2009, p.493). “Trying” refers to the outward verbalisation of action and intention and reflects the deliberate interaction between the individual and the environment. As Dewey’s says: “doing becomes trying; an experiment with the world to find out what it is like” (Dewey 1916, p. 104). “Undergoing” is related to the consequences of experience on the individual. This means that in the attempt to have an impact in the world, the experience also impacts on us. Dewey (1916) explains that:

We do something to the thing and then it does something to us in return: such is the peculiar combination. The connection of these two phases of experience measures the fruitfulness of experience. Mere activity does not constitute experience. (p. 104)

From Dewey's (1938/97) perspective, the interaction between the student and his/her environment is the most important factor contributing to his/her learning, as he said: "I assume that amid all uncertainties there is one permanent frame of reference... namely, the organic connection between education and personal experience" (p.12). He went further by saying that "all experiences absorb something from those which have gone before and transform the quality of those experiences which come after them" (1938/97, p.27). For Dewey education is the vehicle for social continuity of life, and for him, to have any educational value, an experience must lead to growth that later on must lead to further growth (Dewey, 1916/1997). In Dewey's (1938/97) work he believes that experience derives from two essential principles: continuity and interaction. He believes that "education must be conceived as a continuing reconstruction of experience; that the process and the goal of education are one and the same thing" (Dewey, 1896, p. 12). Every experience a person has that impacts his/her future, for better or for worse is referred by him as continuity as he proposes that "growth defined as developing physically, intellectually and morally, is an example of the principle of continuity" (1938/97, p.28). Dewey says that "The educative process is a continuous process of growth, having as its aim at every stage an added capacity of growth" (1916, p. 43). Interaction, on the other hand, is cited by Dewey as being the situational influence of interaction on one's experience. He believes that the interaction between one's past experiences and the present situation influences present experiences (Dewey (1938/97)).

In physical education and sport, student's/athlete's experience of being taught would greatly depend on how the teacher/coach facilitates and arranges the sessions and the approaches they use, as well as the student's/athlete's past experiences of similar sessions and teaching/coaching approaches. In Dewey's perspective, it is essential to understand that experiences do not have a predestined value. Therefore, the outcome of experience may differ

from person to person, as what it can be damaging to one might be satisfying to the other. Dewey (1938/97) focus on experience is evident in his book *Experience and Education* as he criticises *traditional* education and encourages *progressive* education. He states that in order to successfully design emancipating educational experiences, a teacher must previously understand the student's past experience. He further emphasises this idea as he says that, as educators, only when we understand the theory of experience, we can gradually begin organising our subject matter, taking into account the students' past experiences and delivering experiences that will help to open up their access to future growth experiences.

### **3.3 Social construction of beliefs and dispositions – Occupational Socialisation**

When looking at teacher/coach development as an ongoing social process of learning, it is essential to look at teachers'/coaches' practice, interpretation, and adaptation and how they are shaped by their values, beliefs, knowledge and inclinations. These emerge, not only from their experiences of being taught PE and sport but also from their experiences of teaching and coaching. Over the past three decades, the literature consistently suggests significant tension between long-held, common sense assumptions about learning, what good teaching is, and the assumptions about learning that underpin the responses of pre-service, early career and experienced practising teachers to innovative approaches such as game-based approaches (GBA) (see, for example, Aguiar & Light, 2015; Butler 1996; Light & Tan, 2006). These concerns have also been identified in studies on sport coaches and their use of Game Sense (see, for example, Light & Evans, 2013; Roberts, 2011). As suggested by social constructivist perspectives (Bruner, 1996; Dewey, 1938/87; Vygotsky, 1978), learning occurs through experiences and interaction with others in particular contexts during teachers' and coaches' lives. This suggests that many teachers and coaches have developed, through their experiences, deeply embedded ideas on teaching/coaching and learning that challenge how they take on new

information. These common-sense ideas about learning and teaching/coaching are in turn developed over the teachers'/coaches' lives, and across all stages of their development until they pursue formal education and training and become teachers and coaches. Lawson's (1983) views on occupational socialisation show similarities with Vygotsky's, Bruner's and Dewey's social constructivist perspectives. She stresses the importance of interaction with others within different contexts in the development of teachers'/coaches' perceptions and beliefs about teaching and coaching that later on, during their professional lives, will influence their practice.

Lawson's (1938) three stages of teacher socialisation (acculturation, professional socialisation, and organisational socialisation) look at the impact of the social relations in the ability of teachers to learn and accept change. She suggests that the early years of socialisation (acculturation) are of great importance in the development of one's beliefs about teaching and coaching, but also recognises that workplace socialisation (organisational socialisation) "may also be a strong determinant of teachers' agency and desire to introduce changes within a teaching culture" (Curry, 2012, p.44). As pointed out by Fernandez-Balboa (2009) fitting into the teaching/coaching environment generates some difficulties and challenges, and the culture of each setting can sometimes contribute to the pedagogical decisions teachers and coaches make in their practice in a daily basis (Sirna, Tinning, & Rossi, 2009).

### **3.4 Apprenticeship of Observation**

Lortie's (1975) concept of apprenticeship of observation can be seen as being complementary to a constructivist perspective, in a sense that recognises that learning occurs through a process of social interaction. However, this concept also seems to present some inconsistencies with a constructivist view of learning as, apart from early stages of socialisation into PE a sport (Lawson's (1983) concept of acculturation), it almost devalues the impact any other learning experience can have in future teachers/coaches' beliefs and practice. Lortie's

work focuses on teachers, but its ideas can also be transferred to coaches and how they also spend most of their lives learning to become coaches, in controlled and formal environments such as clubs and schools.

Lortie's (1975) concept of apprenticeship of observation is used to describe the countless hours that future teachers spend in classrooms before entering teacher education programmes. These experiences seem to provide socialisation into established traditions that later on will influence teachers' beliefs about what schooling should be like. According to Smagorinsky and Barnes (2014), with this prevalent acculturation to education, "people enter teaching with deeply rooted beliefs and assumptions about the conduct of school that are difficult to replace during the year or so that they spend exposed to progressive pedagogies in their teacher education courses" (p.30). Other researchers, such as Schempp (1989) believe that future teachers have a hard time imagining different ways of teaching besides the way they have experienced as students, being consequently acculturated into conservative schooling.

The narrative above, suggests that beginning teachers not only undertake teacher education but also their subsequent career with a predisposition to grasp the dictatorial values that attracted them to return to pursue a teaching career in the first place (Smagorinsky & Barnes, 2014). This seems to enhance "a cycle that contributes to the overall stability of schools as cautious institutions that maintain the conservative traditions that have long driven educational practice" (Smagorinsky & Barnes, 2014, p.31). Thus, the schools' values "inevitably trump those of universities in shaping teachers' practice, completing the cycle that is often begun as early as preschool" (p.31). The conservatism that is still evident in schools, impacts teachers' and coaches' (especially school sport coaches) beliefs and practices. However, teachers that entered the profession in the last fifteen to twenty years have available a wider range of influences and resources, as they have studied in an era where oriented, constructivist approaches have been widely used and available for personal research.



### **3.5 Situated learning, Communities of practice (CoP), and Legitimate peripheral learning (Lave and Wenger)**

Due to the recognition that learning occurs through participation in practice, Lave and Wenger's (1991) concept of situated learning and consequently the concepts of CoP and legitimate peripheral learning became attractive, and widely used in research in the fields of sport and physical education (see, for example, Cassidy & Rossi 2006; Kirk & MacPhail 2002; Light, 2011). The idea that most of what we learn is particular to the situation in which learning occurs is of great importance in situated learning. For Lave and Wenger (1991), the idea behind this concept is to try to understand "how we really learn" (p.33). The main claims of situated learning, also known as situated cognition, are that "action is situationally grounded" which means that "the potentialities for action cannot be fully described independently of the specific situation" (Anderson, Reder, & Simon, 1996, p.6), and that "learning occurs through practice and the social interaction that arises from it within communities of practice" (Light, 2011, p. 372). This presents a way of locating learning in specific communities of practice, as Lave and Wenger (1991) see learning as "a process that takes place in a participation framework, not in an individual mind" (p.15). This concept also helped further in this study, as it helped to understand why and how the participants' approaches to teaching and coaching changed and were shaped by the distinct contexts of each school they have worked at.

The concept of communities of practice (CoP) is pivotal in Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger's work (1991) and cannot be detached from situated learning, as CoP "provide the participation framework within which learning takes place" (Light, 2011, p. 373). The contexts (social and cultural) where a community of practice exists have an important influence on what is learnt and how that learning occurs. To Lave and Wenger (1991) the "possibilities for learning" (p. 98) are defined by how a community of practice is structured regarding its social

relationships. According to Kirk and Kinchin (2003), a fundamental aspect of the notion of CoP “is a person’s identity in relation to other members of a community, and the emotional investments individuals make in relation to their sense of who they are and where they fit in as a member of a group” (p.223). Due to the nature of the concepts of situated learning and CoP, it is not possible to detach Lave and Wenger’s ideas on legitimate peripheral participation to fully understand the interrelatedness of context, social interaction and learning, and the relevance of participation in specific contexts.

According to Lave and Wenger (1999), legitimate peripheral participation “provides a way to speak about the relations between newcomers and old-timers, and about activities, identities, artefacts, and communities of knowledge and practice. It concerns the process by which newcomers become part of a community” (p.83). Instead of looking to learning as merely addition of new forms of knowledge, Lave and Wenger place great importance in social relationships and situations of joint participation. They argue that participation “refers not just to local events of engagement in certain activities with certain people, but to a more encompassing process of being active participants in the *practices* of social communities and constructing *identities* in relation to these communities” (Wenger, 1998, p. 4).

### **3.6 Overview of constructivism in Sport and Physical Education**

There has been identified in the literature a steady growth in the use of constructivism in sport and teacher education programmes, however over the last century, learning and teaching in PE and sport still present signs of being greatly influenced by Behaviourism (Light, 2008). This slow acceptance of a constructivist perspective in sport and PE can possibly be explained by the fact that Behaviourist perspectives seem to separate thinking from experience, focusing and relying on observable changes in the behaviour of the body to point out what influences behaviour (Davis, Sumara, & Luce-Kapler, 2000).

Approaches to teaching and learning that are consistent with constructivism have a long history. However, constructivist learning theory used in studies on physical education and youth sport only became popular over the past three decades, with the volume of literature that emphasises the importance and the need for a constructivist view in PE and sport exponentially increasing over the last fifteen years (see Grehaigne, Richard, & Griffin, 2005; Griffin, Brooker, & Patton, 2005; Hay, Tinning, & Engstrom; 2015; Kirk, 2005, 2006; Kirk & MacDonald, 1998; Light, 2008; Light & Fawns, 2003; Pissanos & Alison, 1993; Rink, 2001; Rink, French, & Tseerdsma, 1996; Rovegno & Dolly, 2006; Singleton, 2009; Tinning, Kirk, & Evans, 1993). Azzarito's and Ennis' (2003) work, *A Sense of Connection: Toward Social Constructivist Physical Education*, is one example of that as in their study they found that in PE a social constructivist pedagogy can offer an important connection not only for students and students but also teachers and students. They also found that in order to generate relevance for students, educators need to move away from traditional approaches, and change their views about PE teaching.

Constructivism in PE and sport help explain the cognition and learning process that takes place in dynamic situations that are constantly changing such as game situations. As one of the most enthusiastic promoters of constructivism to develop learning and understanding through PE, Rovegno (1998) emphasised how the intra-personal dimensions of learning are highlighted by cognitive constructivism. Here, the construction of knowledge is associated with "the activation and reorganisation of existing knowledge to make a unique understanding of the world" (Chen & Rovegno, 2000, p. 357). Constructivist views on sport and PE are related to the term student-centred as it focuses on the learner and emphasises the importance of teachers/coaches in guiding the learning process. Later in the 90s, several researchers also suggested that the principles underpinning TGfU (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982) were consistent

with constructivism (Grehaigue, Godbout, & Bouthier, 1999; Kirk & MacDonald, 1998) even though Bunker and Thorpe did not theorise the model from a constructivist perspective.

Constructivist informed pedagogy sees teachers and coaches as facilitators, mediating and helping students develop their understanding, meaning making and also encouraging them to be actively involved in their own process of learning. GBAs and student-centred approaches can be seen to sit upon a holistic and constructivist view of learning that contrasts with the behaviourist division of body from mind and knower from knowledge. In Light and Fawns' (2001) work, *The Thinking Body: Constructivist Approaches to Games Teaching in Physical Education* they explore the relationship between the body and mind in games, they argue that there is a *thinking body*. For that reason, it is crucial to understand the distinct assumptions about how learning occurs and perceptions about what knowledge is to contribute for the development of teacher/coach professional development, teacher education programmes, and approaches to physical education and sport teaching associated with a constructivist perspective.

## 4. Methodology

As a researcher coming from a foreigner country, I didn't want to influence the outcome of the study and enter the field with preconceived ideas, as my main goal was to develop an understanding of teacher's and coaches' approaches and beliefs instead of coming prepared to test a theory or prove an opinion. Constructivist grounded theory (CGT) appealed to me due to its credibility and rigour, and the fact that it is based on theoretical *construction* rather than *discovery* (see, Charmaz, 2008; Kenny & Fourie, 2015).

I was prepared and excited to use CGT, however as the focal point of my study was to understand teachers and coaches approaches and beliefs about teaching and coaching, and how they were developed over their lives, I felt that I wanted to get closer to the participants in order to have a deeper understanding of their personal stories. For that reason, I decided to, not only use CGT but combine it with narrative inquiry (NI). Merging these two methodologies allowed me to enrich the process of data collection and analysis by keeping the participants' stories intact, and at the same time being able to explore emerging themes and/or categories that were then compared and contrasted to identify any common aspects between the participants. Grounded theory and narrative inquiry together offered an inductive approach through which I was able to explore, take a very "close examination of data" (Urquhart, 2013, p.8), answer my research question, and come to understand the object of my inquiry.

This chapter traces the development of grounded theory and narrative inquiry and provides an in-depth examination of the philosophical assumptions that each methodology sits upon. It outlines the components of both methodologies and justifies the suitability of a combined CGT and NI methodology for this study. Due to the fact that grounded theory itself

has many variations that present different philosophical assumptions (Kenny & Fourie, 2014), I also identified the reasons why constructivist principles were used. Finally, and to provide methodological transparency, I delineate the methods I used to collect and analyse the data, as well as the process followed to meet the ethical consideration required at the University of Canterbury.

#### **4.1 Endorsing a Paradigm of Inquiry**

The research design and its underpinnings are deeply influenced (implicitly and explicitly) by research traditions and their associated beliefs (Grant & Giddings, 2002). As a result of that, and to ensure credibility, is crucial situating the research within an epistemological stance, engaging with various research traditions, with their philosophical underpinnings and respective ontological positions (Brewer, 2000). The methodology will provide a way of making sense and understanding the phenomena studied, and for that reason it is important to articulate the assumptions embedded in the chosen methodology (Crotty, 1998), as it will influence the techniques used for generating data, interpreting data, and how we construct and understand meaning (Mason, 1996). According to Howell (2013), frameworks that provide meaning and understanding, are considered as being influenced by a paradigm of inquiry. To Sotirios Sarantakos (1993) a paradigm of inquiry informs the researcher about which knowledge claims are “important, what is legitimate, what is reasonable” (p.30), appropriate and logical regarding efficient inquiry.

There are four main inquiry paradigms suggested by Guba and Lincoln (1994): positivism, post-positivism, critical theory et al., and constructivism. The *positivist* paradigm of inquiry believes that reality can be established by research and that the object of research is separate from the researcher. The main goal is to generate prediction and control the variables as it sits on a dualist or objectivist epistemology that seeks to authenticate hypotheses to

uncover knowledge through experimentation and manipulation of complex variables (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). *Post-positivist* was the second paradigm of inquiry proposed, and for several years was the most predominant paradigm. It claims that even though reality exists, it can only be probably but not fully apprehended. Objectivity is still an epistemological ideal. However, the dualist perspective is modified in this paradigm. Therefore, “the *post-positivist* researcher pursues an accumulation of knowledge through modified experimental research and hypothesis falsification but concedes that emic viewpoints collected through qualitative research can be valuable” (Annells, 1996, p.384).

The third paradigm of inquiry is *critical theory et al.*, that according to Guba and Lincoln (1994), is a paradigm that incorporates post-structuralism, postmodernism and the merge of the two, as they have similar ideological positions. Later on, as explained by Merilyn Annells (1996), Guba and Lincoln found a “common ontology for some forms of inquiry where it is believed that a virtual reality shaped by numerous values over time can be apprehended, but then only for practical purposes (historical realism)”. In this paradigm, the vital interrelated relationship between the inquirer and “a particular group (co-participants) subjectively transacts value-mediated findings”. Hence, to gain knowledge, a “reconstructive dialogue and dialectic process is facilitated between the co-participants with the aim of restitution and emancipatory praxis” (p.384).

Finally, the fourth paradigm of inquiry, *constructivism*, was also interpreted by Annells (1996) as being a paradigm that Guba and Lincoln (1994) recognised to:

Perceive the nature of reality as a local and specific mental construction formed by person and multiple mental constructions collectively exist regarding reality (relativism). Therefore, the knower is subjectively and interactively linked in relation to what can be known. Methodologically, the researcher engages in an inquiry process that *creates* knowledge through interpreted constructions dialectically transacted, thus

aiming for more informed and sophisticated consensus constructions to provide a reconstructive understanding of a phenomenon (p.385).

“Qualitative research is a form of social inquiry that focuses on the way people interpret and make sense of their experiences and the world they live” (Bryman, 2001, p.3). According to Grant and Giddings (2002), as researchers, by deeply knowing and considering the methodology, we will be prepared to develop credible knowledge claims and understand the research phenomena, within the chosen paradigm. Taking into account the main goals and claims made about each paradigm, and the aim of my research, I have adopted a *constructivist* paradigm that leans toward an interpretive ontology, as the knowledge I constructed was socially and culturally shaped.

## **4.2 Grounded Theory**

With the emphasis of grounded theory being on the generation of theory that is grounded in the data, this methodology has become a widely held form of inquiry, (Dawson, 2005). Also, it became a broadly claimed qualitative methodology for research centred on human subjects (Bryant & Charmaz, 2011). Grounded theory is characterised by its ongoing process where the researcher becomes more and more embedded in the data, and where the aim is to develop richer concepts and deeper understanding of how the phenomena being studied works (Charmaz, 2003). For that reason, by using constructivist grounded theory (CGT), I was able to keep the focus on my analysis without having any previous arguments about it, and more importantly, to construct a theory that emerged from and interpreted the data (Charmaz, 2006).

Over the years, many shifts have occurred in grounded theory (GT). To acquire a better understanding of GT is presented an overview of its historical development. It outlines not only GT's long-established perspectives (Glaser, 1978, 1992; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss &



Corbin, 1990, 1994, 1998) but also more recent views on grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006; Kelle, 2007).

#### **4.2.1 Historical Development.**

Grounded Theory appearance can be reported back in the early 60's in the United States. Sociologists Barney G. Glaser and Anselm L. Strauss (1965, 1967) engaged in a successful collaboration during a study on death and dying in the hospital context (see Glaser & Strauss, 1965, 1968; Strauss & Glaser, 1970), with the objective of contribute to an improvement in the management of the dying process in terminal care environments. Both researchers differed from each other regarding their paradigmatic background, with Strauss being an established qualitative sociologist, influenced by the Chicago School of Sociology and symbolic interactionism, and Glaser coming from a quantitative background in descriptive statistics, although they still managed to work together to achieve their goal. They conducted intensive fieldwork in different care environments through observations of health care professionals, patients and their family members' interactions, and also by interviewing them (Lal, Suto & Ungar, 2012). "As they constructed their analysis of dying, they developed systematic methodological strategies that social scientists could adopt for studying many other topics" (Charmaz, 2006).

As a reaction against the positivism that was widely spread through social research, Glaser and Strauss challenged the 'grand theory' concept that focused on uncovering pre-existing and universal explanations of social behaviour. They proposed grounded theory as a practical method for conducting research that keeps the focus on the interpretive process through the analysis of meanings and concepts in real settings. Glaser and Strauss' grounded theory became known as a classic grounded theory, and considered, when associated to Glaser, to be underpinned by an objectivist ontology, where predicting future behaviours, discovering

the underlying social process and entering the field as an objective researcher summarise an objectivist view (see Glaser, 1978, 1992).

On the other hand, grounded theory associated with Strauss is considered to be influenced by pragmatism and symbolic interactionism (see Strauss, 1987; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The main idea is that meaning is influenced and mediated by social interactions, where the focus on the process has a strong connection to symbolic interactionism which “assumes that people can and do think about their actions rather than respond mechanically to stimuli” (Charmaz, 2006, p.7). They have taken grounded theory in divergent ways with Strauss co-authoring with Juliet M. Corbin (Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Strauss & Corbin, 1990; 1998), creating a version that moved grounded theory towards verification and favoured “new technical procedures rather than emphasizing the comparative methods that distinguished earlier grounded theory strategies” (Charmaz, 2006, p.8). Yet, grounded theory still builds upon two main concepts: *constant comparison*, where the data is collected and analysed simultaneously, and *theoretical sampling*, where the researcher can decide, based on the emerging theory, what data should be collected next. Because of that, as the research proceeds, substantive theories are developed from the data, which are tested and re-tested in further data generation rather than developing objective descriptions, since data generation focuses on the experiences of each participant.

Meanwhile, other variants of grounded theory emerged that move away from the classic approach from Glaser, Strauss and Corbin to a post-modernist grounded theory and more recently to a constructivist view of grounded theory. They still follow epistemological foundations of earlier forms of grounded theory that consist of a systematic approach to data collection and analysis to create an abstract and interpretive understanding of the data. But the newer interpretations recognise the subjectivity of the researcher’s role and consider the assumptions made of the external world.

Post-modernist grounded theory is associated with Clarke's situational analysis (see Clarke, 2005; Clarke, Friese & Washburn, 2017), and its development lies largely in the critiques made to grounded theory of not going far enough around the postmodern turn. This turn refers to the epistemological and ontological revolution that has been occurring over the past decades across many fields, from the social sciences and humanities to professional schools (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007). Strauss's post-modernisation of the social was pushed further in the post-modern turn by situational analysis, where action is not enough, and the focus needs to be fully on the situation of inquiry conceived (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007). Situational analysis is deeply connected to Foucault's approach, offering strategies to study and analyse discourses (see Clarke, 2005). The goals are to redevelop grounded theory by separating grounded theory from its remaining positivist roots and reinforce its postmodern capacities, and also to enrich with multiple alternatives the traditional grounded theory of analysis with key social process (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007).

Situational analysis is accomplished by making three kinds of maps followed through with analytic work and memos. The situational map is the first one and intends to capture the complexities of the situation in their dense relations and variations. The second type of map is the social worlds/arenas map that offers interpretations of the situation at a meso-level, engaging institutional and social organisational dimensions to the situation being study. The third and final map is a positional map that accounts for relevant positions taken and/or not taken through the study. It pursues to represent the wide range of positions on particular issues, allowing numerous positions and even contradictions within both individuals and collectivities (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007). A post-modernist view is represented by ideas on the significance of context that enable effects, and also on the importance given to situated knowledge.

Finally, constructivist grounded theory is related to Kathy Charmaz (see Charmaz, 2005, 2006, 2008, 2014), and it can be differentiated from classic and post-modern grounded

theory by recognising the role that the researcher plays in the study. In this approach, researchers must examine, rather than erase, and they must try to understand through a reflexive process how their preconceptions and values may influence the research process from the beginning to its end (Charmaz, 2014). Constructivist grounded theory views theory as construction and situates the researcher inside the research process.

#### **4.2.2 Constructivist grounded theory.**

... I assume that neither data nor theories are discovered either as given in the data or the analysis. Rather, we are part of the world we study, the data we collect, and the analyses we produce. We construct our grounded theories through our past and present involvements and interactions with people, perspectives and research practices. (Charmaz, 2014, p.17)

The grounded theory perspective adopted by a researcher is greatly influenced by the research design and its philosophical underpinnings, and by the researcher's epistemological and ontological beliefs (Brewer, 2000). In this study, I used a constructivist grounded theory (CGT) mainly because of the role I played as a researcher, adopting a constructivist paradigm of inquiry and an interpretive stance through the study. As described above and opposite to classic grounded theory, this approach allowed me to adopt a reflexive stance about how my values and beliefs influenced the research process, positioning myself inside of it, and also constructing a theory rather than having a preconceived one.

Constructivist grounded theory embraces the original statement of Glaser and Strauss (1967) of being an inductive, comparative, open-ended and emergent approach, but the constructivist turn emphasises the flexibility of the method, resisting to mechanical applications of it. A constructivist approach also "shreds notions of a neutral observer" (p.13),

which means that the researchers must consider how their preconceptions may influence the analysis, and how their values shape the facts they can identify, rather than eliminate their connection to what is being studied (Charmaz, 2014). The term *constructivist* was chosen by Kathy Charmaz to recognise the researchers' active role in the construction and interpretation of data, and also to underline the differences between her approach and the 80s and 90s' conventional social constructionism. Her position aligns with social constructivists such as Vygotsky (1978) and Bruner (1996) who view learning and knowledge as being embedded in the social life, taking into account interactions, contexts, interpretive understandings and sharing standpoints.

In constructivist grounded theory, theories are grounded in data and are developed through an iterative process that begins with inductive data. Charmaz (2014) identifies several actions that differentiate grounded theory approaches from other inductive qualitative approaches:

- Data collection and analysis are conducted simultaneously
- Actions and processes are analysed instead of analysing themes and structures
- Comparative methods are used
- Conceptual categories are developed and drawn from data
- Systematic data analysis allows the development of inductive analytic strategies
- Theories are constructed rather than preconceived theories being applied
- Theoretical sampling is used
- Variation in the studied categories or process is pursued.
- Rather than address empirical topics, categories are developed

As in CGT, the theories are grounded in data, and for that reason strong and rich data must be collected. The data needs to be detailed, focused and full, capable of revealing

participants' actions, feelings and views as well as the contexts surrounding their lives (Charmaz, 2014). As Geertz (1973) suggests, gathering rich data means looking for “thick” description and information. Constructivist grounded theory uses data collection methods as tools instead of recipes to follow. They are viewed as “systematic, yet flexible guidelines for collecting and analyzing qualitative data to construct theories from the data themselves” (Charmaz, 2014, p.1). Generally, CGT is a less structured approach, particularly in terms of data analysis, with “flexible guidelines, not with methodological rules, recipes, and requirements” (Charmaz, 2014, p.16). This approach also identifies that the researcher plays his/her role of shaping the questions asked, conducting the interview process, analysing the data and developing the theory, along with the participants, stating that in qualitative research the researcher can never be objective and passive as it is in positivist inquiry (Charmaz, 2014).

#### **4.3 Narrative Inquiry**

The use of narrative inquiry came to enrich the process of data collection and analysis as it was a methodology that allowed me, as a researcher, to enhance my interpretive position during the study. To get in-depth knowledge about NI, I searched for its roots and how it was developed over the years.

The interpretation of narratives can be traced as far back as 350 BC when *Poetics* were produced by Aristotle, exploring the purpose and structure of poetry and drama (Aristotle 350 BC). However, the first appearance of narrative inquiry, in the form of life histories, was in the work of researchers from the Chicago School of Sociology in the early part of the 20th century (Chase, 2005). At the time, sociologists and anthropologists were interested in the “what” of the stories told, looking to the content as direct representations of life experiences. A significant turn in researchers' perspective and treatment of narratives occurred in the 1960s, marked by ontological and epistemological shifts toward the understanding of the social construction of

reality and how it can be acknowledged. This turn led researchers to consider other types of questions in the narratives. Researchers started to question the stories of the narrators, inquiring about “how” the stories are told (e.g., use of language), for “whom” stories are told, how interviewers influence the stories that are told and how they tell them, and “why” stories are told (e.g., intentions of the narrator) (Riessman, 2008).

Although the 60s had great importance in the advance of narrative inquiry, key theoretical, philosophical, and historical contributions on narrative (inquiry) only appear in the 1980s, provided by Ricoeur (1988), Bruner (1987), and Polkinghorne (1988). Bruner (1987, 1991) proposed two ways of knowing (narrative and paradigmatic-positivistic) and developed a theoretical framework of narrative detailing its features. Ricoeur (1988) produced many accounts on a range of relevant topics to the theory and study of narrative including hermeneutics, time, language, identity, discourse, and action. He studied narrative as a critical form of human consciousness and awareness, and he also conceptualised the relationship between narrative and time within a three-stage temporal sequence of mimesis, where humans represent and understand their world. Polkinghorne (1988), wrote a book called *Narrative Knowing and the Human Sciences*, where he supported the thesis that narrative is a way through which “human beings give meaning to their experience of temporality and personal actions” (p. 11), by accounting historically the role of narrative across the fields of philosophy, psychology, literary theory and criticism, and history.

More recently, since the 1990s, has been placed in the literature growing attention on the pedagogic and methodological aspects of narrative inquiry. Connelly and Clandinin (1990), within the field of education, used the term “narrative inquiry” (Clandinin, Pushor, & Orr, 2007) to refer to their conceptualisation of a methodological framework for guiding the process of inquiry into the narrative phenomenon.

#### **4.3.1 Shifts toward Narrative Inquiry.**

Within the literature, it is possible to identify four major *turns* toward narrative inquiry where changes in the way of thinking and acting by researchers occurred. The term *turn* used was extracted by Clandinin's (2007, p.8) handbook called, *Handbook of narrative inquiry: Mapping a methodology*. It means the shift in direction from one way of being or thinking toward another, highlighting the fact that such modifications can occur in a fast or slow pace, depending on the experience of the researchers and their experiences while doing research. However, the occurrence of these *turns* is not requested to be in a particular order.

The four major *turns* addressed are: (1) the change in the relationship between the researcher and the subject of the research (researched person), (2) the use of words as data instead of the use of numbers, (3) movement from a focus on the general and universal towards the local and specific, and (4) a growing acceptance of other ways of knowing or epistemologies (Clandinin, 2007).

##### ***Relationship between the researcher and the subject of research***

In the *turn* towards narrative inquiry, one of the most relevant aspects was the change in the understanding of the relationship between the researcher and the person being researched. This *turn* is characterised by moving away from a position of objectivity defined from the positivistic, realist perspective towards a perspective focused on the interpretation and understanding of meaning. Narrative inquirers recognise that researcher and researched are in a relationship with each other during a particular study and both will learn and change from that encounter (Clandinin, 2007).

In the late 19<sup>th</sup> century an important movement occurred when Comte, Mill, Durkheim (Smith, 1983), and others convinced social scientists that they could use physical sciences' methodology to study human learning and interaction. Taking this step would help social



scientists “identifying ‘facts’ and use them to develop social laws that, like physical laws, would articulate invariant relationships among social objects” (Clandinin, 2007, p.11). Moving away towards a more relational view between researcher and researched involves a reconceptualisation of the status of the researched in the relationship. Even though researchers acknowledge that their subjects are not bound, decontextualised, atemporal, and static, they continue to seek distance between themselves as researchers and the subjects researched. They perceive themselves as being capable of preserving that distance and also keep being objective. Researchers still put a lot of “energy into maintaining an objective stance and distancing themselves from the relationship with the researcher” (Clandinin, 2007, p.15), by using tools to assure accuracy, trustworthiness and consistency, as triangulation, audit trails and member checks.

Although some significant changes were already noticed in the social sciences, the major changes occurred between the late 1960s through 1980s. This resulted in researchers turning away from an objective idea regarding the relationship between the researcher and the researched (Clandinin, 2007). In the study of human learning and interaction, researchers began to account for what they observed instead of looking to the behaviour alone. They not only started to include human thinking in the research on learning, healing, and other human interactions, but also began to recognise the role of culture, the value of the particular, and the value of a single case (Clandinin, 2007).

Bruner (1986) and Geertz (1983) were an important part of this shift in the relationship researcher-researched. Bruner by his assertion of two paradigms of knowing, one paradigmatic and the other one narrative, and Geertz by his insistence that research gradually involved unclear forms (Clandinin, 2007). In the *turn* towards narrative inquiry, after many changes, criticism, and research, researchers “not only understand that there is a relationship between the humans involved in the inquiry but also who the researcher is and that what is researched

emerge in the interaction” (Clandinin, 2007, p.18). In this view, the researcher and the researched phenomena are seen to “co-exist in time and in a particular context, bringing with them a history and worldview, not being static but dynamic, and assuming that growing and learning are part of the research process, where both researcher and researched will learn” (Clandinin, 2007, p.18).

### ***Words instead of numbers as data***

Another turn towards narrative inquiry was the movement that occurred from numbers to words as data. What is presented here as the second turn in the historical development of narrative inquiry and narrative inquirers, flows from and is interweaved with other turns. This movement from numbers to words was not a complete rejection of numbers, but the acknowledgement that by using numbers to translate experiences, researchers would lose the nuances of those experiences and relationships in a particular setting which is of great importance and interest to those exploring human experience (Clandinin, 2007).

In the human sciences research, the shift towards the use of word data was clearly expressed by Lincoln and Guba (1985), Reason (1988), Polkinghorne (1988), and Denzin and Lincoln (1994) as they voiced the problems of using numbers to capture experience. They started questioning the ability of numbers to give them deep understanding of human experiences and interactions, especially standardised ways of collecting those numbers. A mythical story of Piaget (Darrell Sabers personal communication in 1983), intrigued social sciences researchers, where during the administration of an intelligence test that would provide a way of standardizing its administration and provide a framework for interpretation of test scores, he became interested in understanding what the answers of the participants meant instead of in norming a test. He started focusing on the children's explanations about their understanding of particular events and not on numbering the answers. Yet, “Piaget did not turn

completely toward narrative inquiry in that he developed standardized tasks and ratings for students' answers to interpret their stories" (Clandinin, 2007, p.21). The same pattern is possible to see on researchers' path towards narrative inquiry when confronted with the problem of making sense of the stories that emerge from their research subjects. They often turn their back from narrative inquiry because they still have the aspiration of creating "a theory", and researchers acknowledge that they become vulnerable to allegations of lack of accuracy of their findings if they don't standardise the process of data collection (Franzosi, 2004).

The key point in this *turn* seems to rely in Foucault's (1976) explanation, where he argues that "when attempts are made to restrict or reduce particular kinds of discourse or discourse about a particular topic, the inhibition results in an increase rather than decrease in discourse" (Clandinin, 2007, p.22). The same thing appeared to happen with numbers and words because the insistence on number rather than word as data didn't result in the dissipation of words or a replacement of numbers for words, but an increase in the use of words.

### ***Movement from the general towards the focus on the particular***

Understanding the value of a particular experience, in a specific setting, with particular people was the main signal in the *turn* towards a focus on the particular. Coles' (1978) book *Women of Crisis* and Bullough's (2001) *Uncertain Lives* capture the power of the particular. Both books seek a deeper understanding of children's lives entrapped in poverty and Coles' book also captures the resiliency of humans living in those conditions (Clandinin, 2007).

One of the strengths identified by researchers in doing quantitative research is the potential for generalisation and maybe is this perceived strength that slows down or stops the researchers' movement to narrative inquiry. "Positivism made possible for social scientists to

think that their results would be generalizable across time and space if only their methods were replicated” (Clandinin, 2007, p.30).

The beginning of this turn can be traced after the Cold War when a few movements started giving attention to the minorities’ experiences, generating space for narrative to prosper. As an example, both black civil rights and women’s movements used evidence of positivist to highlight American disparities, pointing out studies made on the absence of African American voting and also the unfairness on salaries by gender. These movements highlighted the gap between the United States reality at that time and theory. However, more important than the strongest quantitative evidence was the particular and personal body of evidence collected and shared in both movements. Personal stories became imperative for further crucial movements, and they also added richness to social scientists work that in under other circumstances would feel comfortable using a positivist approach. Narratives gradually became the base for innovation in theory and appearance of social science (Clandinin, 2007).

### ***Growing acceptance of other ways of knowing***

A change in the understanding of human experience and the acknowledgement that there are many ways of knowing is the last *turn* addressed towards narrative inquiry. The acceptance of multiple ways of knowing the world required a shift towards demonstrating findings through authenticity, trustworthiness or relevance (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). Some aspects as the use of stories, the focus on the particular and the relational nature of human science research were an indication of knowing in narrative inquiry. “Narrative inquires recognise that embracing and executing the methodology of narrative inquiry, rather than an exclusive reliance on the assumptions of a positivistic paradigm, provides authentic and resonant findings” (Clandinin, 2007, p.33), accepting the inconstant nature of knowledge. They also gave value to the way “narrative inquiry allows

wondering, tentativeness and alternative views to exist as part of the research account” (Clandinin, 2007, p.33).

The ability of narrative to transmit valuable information is recognised outside academic discipline, like it is by television, journalism and even video games, where all contain complex and strong narrative (Johnson, 2005). However, inside University, only in the past thirty years, narrative ways of knowing have re-emerged as a reliable and consistent field of study. Interestingly, from the social sciences disciplines, only sociology was positivist from the very beginning. This happened because, by the time that Max Webber, Émile Durkheim and Karl Marx tried to give an academic shape to the discipline, key components of positivism had already been embraced by sociologists. Other disciplines, such as History and Anthropology emerged from narrative, but as they became professionalised narrative practitioners started feeling aside. In History’s case, “‘amateur’ historians without a graduate education in history continued to practice narrative, while their “professional” credentialed colleagues wrote analytical, positivist history and slowly excluded amateurs from disciplinary organizations” (Appleby, Hunt & Jacob, 1994 cited in Clandinin, 2007, p.35).

The ambiguity surrounding positivistic social sciences was the trigger to the resurgence of narrative in the social sciences and the effort of some “unravelers” open room for narrative inquiry and writing in this field (Clandinin, 2007). The *turns* presented represent a philosophical shift that underlies Bruner’s (1986) paradigmatic knowing. He describes both paradigmatic and narrative knowing as two clear modes of cognitive functioning:

Each provides a way of ordering experience, of constructing reality, and the two (though amenable to complementary use) are irreducible to one another. ... Each also provides ways of organizing representation in memory and of filtering the perceptual world. Efforts to reduce one mode to the other or to ignore one at the expense of the

other inevitably fail to capture the rich ways in which people ‘know’ and describe events around them (Bruner, 1986, p. 97).

Olive Chapman (2006) summarised the characteristics of Bruner’s modes of knowing:

Paradigmatic and narrative modes of knowing	
Paradigmatic [logico-scientific] Mode	Narrative [humanistic] mode
1. How to know truth	1. Meaning of experience
2. Context-free and universal explications	2. Context-sensitive and particular explications
3. General causes: Categorization and conceptualization	3. Human intentions and action
4. Formal verification procedures and empirical proof	4. Criticism and interpretation of text
5. Good theory, tight analysis, logical proof, empirical discovery guided by reasoned hypothesis	5. Good stories, gripping drama, believable historical accounts

Table 1. Paradigmatic and narrative modes of knowing.

#### 4.3.2 Purpose of Narrative Inquiry.

Narrative Inquiry is frequently employed to understand human experience(s). The stories that people tell are the vehicles through which experiences are studied. This form of inquiry is mainly based on the assumption that stories are a form of social action and the telling of stories is one way that humans experience life (Bruner, 1991; Chase, 2005; Clandinin, 2006; Riessman, 2008). Sparkes and Smith (2014) highlight that, though no single definition of narrative exists. The common thread to its use is that our lives are storied, and the self is constructed through these narratives. The same authors (2009) emphasise a number of key features of narrative inquiry:

- Meaning is core to being human, and we actively construct meaning through stories;
- We are relational beings, and stories and meanings are achieved in relationships;
- Stories are both personal and social;
- Selves and identities are born out of stories;

- Our lives exist in and through time, and stories are a way of organising our experience of temporality;
- The body is a storyteller and narratives are embodied.

### **4.3 Combining Grounded Theory and Narrative Inquiry**

“Qualitative researchers are increasingly combining methods, principles, and processes from different methodologies in the course of a research study as opposed to operating strictly within a delineated qualitative tradition” (Lal, Suto & Ungar, 2012, p.1). This study combined grounded theory and narrative inquiry with the purpose of developing a deeper understanding of the participants’ stories, to gather richer information through its collection and analysis, and construct theory while keeping an open mind and an interpretive stance.

The theoretical background of grounded theory and narrative inquiry can be linked to American pragmatism. The perspectives of George Herbert Mead and John Dewey, two American pragmatists, have been crucial to the development of symbolic interactionism, which in the literature is a theoretical approach that is commonly related to grounded theory. These perspectives helped the development of three critical premises of symbolic interactionism expressed by Blumer (1969). The first one is the meaning that individuals hold for objects (abstract, physical and social), and the fact that this meaning determines their actions toward these objects. Second, the meanings that they generate from objects occur during their interaction with others. And finally, they constantly interpret situations, and these interpretations influence their actions. Symbolic interactionism focuses on understanding human interaction and behaviour through meaning. It is possible to note the influence of it in Glaser and Strauss’ (1965) work situated in micro-level contexts (e.g., long-term care environments), which emphasises the relationship between researchers and the data collected from the empirical world.

Likewise, American pragmatists had a profound influence on the development of narrative inquiry. Connelly and Clandinin (2006) proposed a three-dimensional framework for narrative inquiry that is defined by “temporality, sociality, and place” (Dewey, 1938, p. 479) that drew from Dewey’s theory of experience. This theory highlights two features: interaction and continuity. According to Lal and colleagues (2012), Dewey suggested that “the interactions that individuals have with their social context influence their experience and that past experiences affect future experiences” (pp. 6-7). Besides Dewey’s theory of experience, the development and application of narrative inquiry have also been influenced by narrative theory, in particular, the narrative theory of Bruner (1987, 1991). He classified human thinking in two main ways of knowing already addressed, the narrative mode and the paradigmatic-positivistic mode.

The association between narrative theory and grounded theory has not been common. However, in narrative theory, the emphasis that humans use symbolic systems, such as language to construct reality, (Bruner, 1987, 1991, 2004) suggest that there is theoretical commensurability between grounded theory and narrative inquiry with language being the most common form of data collected and analysed in both approaches. Grounded theory and narrative inquiry, from a theoretical point of view, are commensurable because both have been influenced by the work of American pragmatists. Also, narrative theory can create a bridge between narrative inquiry and the symbolic interaction foundations of grounded theory (Lal et al., 2012). In a methodological perspective, “the comparative analysis of grounded theory and narrative inquiry reveals that the strengths of one approach can offset the limitations associated with the other” (Lal et al., 2012, p.14).

Both methodologies are target of critiques, but in many ways, the critiques associated with narrative inquiry are the opposite of those identified in grounded theory. Grounded theory methodology has been critiqued for present simplified representations of complex phenomena



as well as to hold down the interpretive side of qualitative analysis (Thomas & James, 2006). Moreover, as Lal and colleagues (2012) stated, “the emphasis on coding procedures in grounded theory and consequent fragmentation of data is associated with the concern of ‘stripping away’ individuals and their experiences in the interest of finding patterns across cases” (p. 13). On the other hand, narrative inquiry has been challenged and critiqued on the “hypervalorization” of the personal narratives of participants’ experiences and identities. While narrative inquiries might be perceived as “overly personal and interpersonal” (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000, p. 181), grounded theorists have been criticised by dissecting and diluting participant experiences and contexts (e.g., Bailey & Jackson, 2003; Cohn et al., 2009).

Looking to the weaknesses presented by each approach, researchers have evoked the use of narrative inquiry to compensate the concerns regarding the fragmentation of text in grounded theory and resultant loss of participant stories (e.g., Cohn et al., 2009; Drew, 2005, 2007; Herrera, Dahlblom, Dahlgren & Kullgren, 2006; Schow, 2006;). They have also combined the analytical methods of narrative inquiry and grounded theory to enrich the understanding of the dynamic nature of core categories that emerge in a grounded theory analysis (e.g., Bailey & Jackson, 2003, 2005; Drew, 2005, 2007; Floersch, Longhofer, Kranke & Townsend, 2010).

In this study, narrative inquiry was used to further explore and, as said before, to enrich the core categories that emerged from the grounded theory analysis.

#### **4.4 Research Design and Methods**

Initially, the study was structured with the aim of answering the following research question:

*What are New Zealand secondary teachers’ approaches and beliefs about games teaching and what has shaped this as a process of learning?*

However, after knowing more about New Zealand culture and how physical education is structured in schools, and knowing that games and/or sport are not always taught in PE, I have decided to extend the research to coaches as well, specifically school sport coaches. Therefore, the aim of the study became wider with the research question slightly changing to:

*What are New Zealand secondary teachers' **and coaches'** approaches and beliefs about games teaching and what has shaped this as a process of learning?*

Within an interpretive paradigm, using a constructivist grounded methodology, and adopting an interpretive stance, the research question allowed me to identify the ways in which physical education teachers and coaches taught games/sport, what were their beliefs and practice, and understand how they were developed over their lives. It also helped to provide insight into learning to teach/coach games/sport as a process that began well before enrolment in formal teacher education.

In grounded theory, when choosing the research design and the methods, there is a concern of how much data gather (Urquhart, 2013). This is a real concern as the amount of data collected might affect the outcome of the study as the researcher might 'drown' in their data. As a beginning researcher, I did struggle to know exactly when to stop collecting data and if the data I had was strong enough. However, I considered the amount of data gathered and balance that with the time spent analysing it and coding, and more importantly if I was moving towards answering my research question.

#### **4.5 Reflexive and interpretive stance**

Reflexivity is seen as the process of critical self-reflection of our inclinations and theoretical predispositions as researchers, making these influences explicit not only to

ourselves but also to the reader (Gentles, Jack, Nicholas, & McKibbin, 2014; Schwandt, 1994). Reflexivity has been defined and conceptualised in many ways in qualitative research, (Cutcliffe, 2003; Finlay, 2002; Mruck & Mey, 2010).

Aware of the influence I was going to have in the interpretation of the data collected, it was important to adopt a reflexive stance during the study. According to Geertz (1973), “what we call our data are really our own constructs of other people’s constructions of what they and their compatriots are up to” (p. 19). Bourdieu’s *reflexive sociology* and its relation to concepts of social field, perspectivism and spaces of point of view were also of great importance to my reflexive and interpretive position in this work.

[Reflexivity calls] less for intellectual introspection than for the permanent sociological analysis and control of sociological practice ... It entails ... the systematic exploration of the 'unthought categories of thought which delimit the thinkable and predetermine the thought'. (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 40)

...the sociologist might seem to be threatened with a kind of schizophrenia, in as much as he [sic] is condemned to speak of historicity and relativity in a discourse that aspires to universality and objectivity. (Bourdieu, 2000, p. 93)

Bourdieu’s concepts of habitus and field are intended to offer a different conceptualisation of the subject, as socially embedded, as embodied dispositions, shaped by one's location within social fields. The connection between field and habitus, and respectively between “position” (within the field) and “disposition”, is central to Bourdieu's understanding of reflexivity. He states that: “To each of the fields there corresponds a fundamental point of view on the world” (Bourdieu, 2000, p. 99). And it is through an interrogation process that, as said before, a reflexive researcher can uncover and “systematically explore the ‘unthought’

categories of thought which delimit the thinkable and predetermine the thought” (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 40).

By being reflexive, I recognise that I was influenced by the social context which includes my values, interests and dispositions, and as it happens in any form of qualitative research, subconsciously and consciously my own knowledge, experiences and beliefs have influenced my data collection and analysis (Erikson, 1981). Reliability issues were always in the centre of my thoughts during the whole process. I had to be aware and open to new insights, to ensure that the consistency of the data was guaranteed. Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) suggested that an important characteristic for a good qualitative research is to make the “position” of the researcher explicit. For that reason, I made my position as a researcher known early on to prevent any feeling of “deception” by the participants. The participants were, from the very beginning, aware and clear about my “position” as an active part in the research, not only as an inquirer but also as an observer.

The interviews and the fact that the participants had access to my interpretation of their stories also helped to reinforce my reflexive and interpretive stance, and made my position as researcher and relationship with the participants completely clear and open. In addition to my observations and field notes, the interviews helped to decrease the potential for misinterpretation and contributed to understand emerging findings and interpret meanings. The detailed field notes and recorded interviews were also very helpful during the data analysis, and to support the validity of the study.

#### **4.6 Site and Participants’ Selection**

In the beginning, the aim was to do the study in three to six secondary schools in the Canterbury region, as I wanted to have participants from a wider scope of schools. The schools were chosen in accordance with the years they taught since according to the New Zealand

Ministry of Education (2007), teachers teaching in Years 7 to 13 are more likely to have a specific degree to teach health and physical education than the teachers in primary schools that were usually general teachers. However, after contacting six schools through email, telephone and personally, seeking permission to do my research in their school, only two answered positively. Therefore, the data collection took place in two secondary schools in the Canterbury region from July 2016 to March 2017. The schools that were part of this study do not reflect the reality of all New Zealand schools, but allowed for reasonable diversity across the sample. Both schools were multicultural as the majority of schools in New Zealand are, but they sat at opposite ends of the spectrum.

One of the schools was St. Nicolas College (pseudonym), a private, independent co-educational school that was directed by Presbyterian traditions. Through their values, and excellence in academic and sporting endeavours, the aim was to provide to their students world-class learning opportunities. St. Nicolas was very proud of its heritage, traditions of the Christian faith, and the strong sense of community that has been developed in over a century since it was founded. St. Nicolas was a private school in the group of Independent schools in New Zealand that went from pre-school to secondary Year 13 and had about 1,350 students, (males and females). The school believed that co-curricular activity was integral to a young person's development. They offered a range of sporting, recreational, and other performance opportunities to their students, to ensure that they were able to discover their potential, and strive for excellence in anything they chose to do. St. Nicolas was a highly successful sporting school, where the athletes and teams consistently achieved excellent results at regional, national and international level, across a wide range of sports, and where they had a High-Performance Sport Programme where elite athletes from the Senior College (year 11-13) could participate.

The other school was Laguna College (pseudonym). This school was at the opposite end of the spectrum, being a public, co-educational, low decile school<sup>4</sup>. The school went from Year 7 to Year 13 and in 2017 had 647 students from various cultural backgrounds, including 37% Pākehā<sup>5</sup>, 30% Māori, 10% Pacific, 15% Asian, and 8% from other ethnicities. Laguna College was a very diverse school with the aim of having a forward-looking learning environment where every student was encouraged to achieve personal excellence, to get involved, to serve and to enjoy learning. Sport was a very important part of the school life, and the College was proud to say that they offer a range of co-curriculum endeavours, delivered in a fun and safe environment. Laguna College had strong ambitions in health, physical education and co-curricular sports and were driving a pride culture through sport, expecting their students to be dedicated and committed to their sport of choice. However, at the same time that the school was very ambitious for all the students who attended their school, they also encouraged a policy of caring and nurturing their students. Their main goal was to create opportunities for them to excel, giving them direction to thrive and successfully fulfil their real potential so they could be globally competitive.

The participants for this study were chosen using purposive sampling, as they were selected to best fit the purpose of the study. They had to be physical education teachers or/and school sports coaches and had to teach/coach in a secondary school. I have invited six PE teachers and sport coaches to be part of the study, with five of them accepting. Rachel, Christina, David and Mark (pseudonyms) were both PE teachers and coaches (with David being just a coach at the time of the study, but with teaching experience), and Sarah

---

<sup>4</sup> Deciles are a measure of the socio-economic position of a school's student community relative to other schools throughout the country. For example, decile 1 schools are the 10% of schools with the highest proportion of students from low socio-economic communities. Retrieved from [www.education.govt.nz](http://www.education.govt.nz)

<sup>5</sup> The term 'Pākehā' was used in New Zealand before 1815 to mean 'white person'. However, in today's society 'Pākehā' is used to describe any peoples of non-Māori or non-Polynesian heritage. Retrieved from <https://maorinews.com/writings/papers/other/pakeha.htm>

(pseudonym) was just a coach. Below, is a brief introduction to help the reader understand the participants' background and context that is further expanded on chapter 7 (Participant's Narratives), providing detailed information on each participant.

Rachel was half Māori and half European New Zealander. She completed her PETE programme in Christchurch and at the time of the study she was both teaching Health and Physical Education (HPE), and coaching Basketball at Laguna College. She was an early career teacher, with two years of experience always at Laguna College, and regarding her coaching, she has been a coach since her high school years.

Similar to Rachel, Christina completed her studies in Christchurch. She was also an early career teacher (two months of experience at the time of the study) and was both teaching HPE and coaching netball also at Laguna College. She was born in New Zealand with an extensive background as a netball player and had her first coaching experience during high school.

Mark was born in New Zealand with European New Zealander and Samoan heritage. Sport was always part of his life, having played rugby and volleyball at a high level and continuing to play rugby while teaching. He completed his PETE programme in Christchurch, and at the time of the study was teaching HPE and coaching volleyball at St. Nicolas College with fifteen years of teaching experience.

David was born in South Wales, in the United Kingdom (U.K) where he completed his studies up to high school, moving to England later on to complete a three-year degree in Physical Education and Sports Science at Loughborough University. Through his life he was always connected to sport with rugby and football being his passion. David was one of the participants with most experience regarding teaching and coaching, with experiences not only in the U.K but also in New Zealand where he moved to pursue his goal of becoming a renown

rugby coach. At the time of the study, David was only a coach and worked at St. Nicolas College.

Sarah was a basketball coach born and raised in New Zealand who had no teaching experience. She was the only one who did not pursue teaching education, completing her degree in accountancy. Sarah coached many sports, such as athletics, netball, gymnastics and basketball and was very passionate with her coaching experience coming mostly from her own experiences as a former athlete.

#### **4.7 Data Generation**

Each research is unique, and for that reason, the data generation can differ from researcher to researcher. There are however some tools that are commonly used in the process of data collection. According to Myers (2008), data can be collected through interviews; participant observation and fieldworks, and additional documents. However, more recently, Creswell (2012) suggested not three but four main tools for gathering data, as he believes that new forms of qualitative data continue to appear in the literature. He argued that the main tools are: observations (going from participants to non-participants), interviews (close-ended to open-ended interviews), documents (varying from private to public), and audio-visual tools (such as photographs, compact discs and videotapes). For Geertz (1973) “thick” information can be acquired by collecting rich data through writing field notes of observations, collecting participant’s accounts, finding additional yet relevant documents to support the data that has been gathered, and complementing all that with detailed descriptions from transcribed interviews.

Despite the range of tools that I could choose from, in this study I opted to use two different techniques of data generation, observations/field notes and interviews as they are also



the most dominant forms of data collection in grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014; Myers, 2008). They allowed me to, not only gather deep and rich data but also provided the opportunity for triangulating the data collected (Creswell, 2013; Merriam, 2009). In qualitative studies, triangulation is referred to as the use of multiple data sources during the research in order to develop an understanding of the phenomena being studied (Carter, Bryant-Lukosius, DiCenso, Blythe, & Neville, 2014; Denzin, 1978; Patton, 1999). It has also “been viewed as a qualitative research strategy to test validity through the convergence of information from different sources” (Carter et al., 2014, p.545).

I undertook data generation from July 2016 to March 2017 with the first round of interviews being conducted over August and September 2016 and the second round conducted in October/November 2016 and the third round in February/March 2017. I conducted the observations and field notes in two rounds. The first round was in July 2016, before the first round of interviews and the second round of observations was in September/October between the first and the second round of interviews.

#### **4.7.1 Interviews.**

The interviews were the main source of data collection in this study. In the literature, some researchers have suggested the steps needed to conduct qualitative interviews (see Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Rubin & Rubin, 2012), with Kvale and Brinkmann’s (2009) arguing that there are seven steps that a researcher needs to follow, in a logical sequence, to conduct an interview: 1. thematising the inquiry; 2. designing the study; 3. Interviewing; 4. transcribing the interview; 5. analysing the data; 6. authenticating the validity, reliability and generalisability of the findings; 7. to report the study. On the other hand, Rubin and Rubin’s (2012) presented *The responsive interviewing model* also featuring seven steps. The steps suggested by these authors were similar to Kvale and Brinkmann’s, however, the idea behind how to follow those

steps was different and much more flexible, as they saw a qualitative interview, and consequently the steps to take as not being rigid, giving the researcher the flexibility to change the questions and site of the study. As a researcher, I was aware during the interviews of the “power asymmetry”, and the fact that the research interview should not be seen as being a completely open and free dialogue between equal partners (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). However, to make the interviewees feel comfortable in sharing their personal stories and experiences, and to minimise any feeling of unequal power, I tried to make the interviews less formal by meeting outside of their work environment or outside of their working hours.

In this study, the data was generated from three rounds of audio recorded interviews (about thirty minutes each) over three stages. Through the use of grounded theory, the interviews were more open-ended and less structured, allowing me, as a researcher, to respond to the situation promptly (Merriam, 2009), and letting other information to arise. I was also aware that as a researcher I should not inquire in a way that could influence the participant’s answers, but rather, as a tool for seeking understanding, clarification, and exploration (Dawson, 2005). This was not always easy, but as the research progressed, I think I was able to dissociate myself and allow whatever data to emerge.

In stage one, the first interview, was a semi-structured interview that was structured after a couple of observations of the participants’ sessions where, as a researcher, I got a visual understanding, and identified their approaches to games/sport teaching. This interview helped get to know the participants and understand their views on their pedagogical approaches. The first interview corresponded to the development of my initial codes (see data analysis in the section below). This interview was then followed by a couple more observations and detailed field notes, once again with the aim of observing their teaching and coaching approaches, but also with the purpose of triangulating the data. Stage two comprised the second interview that was also a semi-structured interview, structured taking into account my initial codes, and used

to get insight about what were the participants' philosophies and articulated beliefs about games teaching and coaching. The first two stages completely followed a constructivist grounded theory process of data collection and analysis. However, the third stage integrated narrative inquiry in the process of data collection by including a narrative, life-history interview in which the participants were actively engaged in telling their stories (Chase, 2005; Riessman, 2008). The narrative aimed at locating the participants' beliefs about teaching and coaching games in their experience over their lives. The interview focused on letting the participants tell a particular story about any experience or experiences over their lives that they felt may have influenced, in any way, the way they think and act about teaching and coaching games/sport in particular. I took to the interview a limited number of broad and indirect questions developed from stage one and two to keep the focus on the aim of the study, only to be used if need which was not always the case. In the last stage of analysis, categories or themes that emerge from each participant were compared and contrasted to identify any common themes across all six participants.

#### **4.7.2 Observations and field notes.**

Observations and field notes were a fundamental source of data collection. In qualitative research, observation is also often used to gather data (Creswell, 2013). As observations take place in the natural setting where the phenomenon under study occurs, they are the most basic element of data collection (Gerring, 2007). They can also be used to triangulate emerging theories when used simultaneously with data gathered through interviews and other methods (Merriam, 2009). My observations were related to the aim of the study and the research question. However, through constructivist and interpretive ways of analysing the data, I recognised that I was particularly close to it.

Regarding field notes, they are commonly known in the literature as written records of data generated through field observations (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007; Jackson, 1990). For many years, the use of field notes was a strategy mostly used by ethnographers. However, in recent years, it has been used not only in CGT but in most qualitative research (see Charmaz, 2006; Roper & Shapira, 2000). The field notes are also seen as “the process of transformation of observed interaction to written public communication” (Jackson, 1990, pp. 6-7), at the same time that they are capable of protecting the participants’ anonymity by preventing descriptions of social interactions and the context in which the observations occurred.

During the study, I adopted a position of “non-participant observer”. This allowed me to record data without having direct involvement in the session, watching and taking field notes from a distance (Creswell, 2013). My field notes were mostly written immediately after a class or training session, however, once in a while I wrote about a specific event that occurred, during the sessions. Regarding the observations that led to the written field notes, some took place before the first round of interviews to help generate the semi-structured interviews, and some happened between the first and the second round of interviews.

#### **4.8 Data Analysis**

This study also combined grounded theory and narrative analysis to interpret the data, where grounded theory was used throughout the study in an ongoing process and narrative analysis to further explore the core themes/categories that emerged from grounded theory process.

In grounded theory, data analysis and data generation inform each other, as they are both ongoing processes that turn the data collected through naturalistic methods into more abstract and conceptual information (Glaser, 1978). The unique process of analysis and the emphasis attributed to the development of theory grounded in the data distinguish grounded

theory from other qualitative analysis methodologies (Glaser, 1992). I have followed grounded theory's coding process (initial and focused) that later on led to the theoretical sampling and formal theory. Narrative analysis, on the other hand, was mainly used during stage three of data collection with the purpose of further explore the categories and emergent themes from the ongoing analysis done through grounded theory. It was used to make sense and give meaning to the emergent categories. Narrative analysis was crucial to provide a deeper insight into the participants' stories, helping interpret and connect the stories as a whole with the emerging themes. Its main focus was contributing to the understanding of the content of the story; how the story was composed; the subjects involved in the story; when actions happened and why. It followed Catherine Riessman's (2008) four approaches to narrative analysis. She identifies thematic analysis; structural analysis; dialogic or performance analysis and visual analysis, recognising that there is a fine line and a certain degree of crossover between them.

Thematic analysis was used when the content was the main focus and where the "point" of the narrative was emphasised over language and form. This form of analysis is closer to grounded theory, but instead of categorising data it keeps the story intact. The other approach used was structural analysis. Here, in addition to the attention paid to the content, I searched for how the content was organised and the meanings inherent to communicative acts. Structural analysis entailed great attention to details of speech in order to understand how the narrative was composed. As Riessman (2008) suggested, this structure can generate insights beyond what is simply "said" in a narrative.

At last, dialogic analysis was used. Here, questions around who narrated, when and why arose. Seeing narrative as dialogically produced, this approach views stories as social artefacts which say as much about society/culture as it does about a person/group (Riessman, 2008). The fourth approach was not used as it refers to the analysis of words and images (photos, paintings, video, collage, etc.) simultaneously. Riessman (2008) argues that three sites need to be

incorporated into visual narrative analysis: the story of the production of the image, the image itself and how it can be read. As I did not use any source of image as data collection, this approach did not suit my research.

For a visual demonstration of the procedural processes of grounded theory (process of developing categories/themes (initial and focus coding), emerging theory (theoretical sampling and formal theory)), and how narrative analysis was integrated, please see the evidence in Appendices (1-3).

#### **4.8.1 Coding.**

Coding is a pivotal element in grounded theory, as it is a fundamental link between the data and theory development (Howell, 2013). However, the coding process is seen differently within the main traditions of GT (Classic, Straussian and Constructivist) (Kenny & Fourie, 2015). In Classic GT, coding follows three main procedures: open coding, proceeded by selective coding and ending at theoretical coding (see, for example, Glaser, 1978, 1992; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The coding process on a Straussian perspective of GT comprises open coding, followed by axial coding and finalises at selective coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Finally, in a constructivist view of GT, the coding process starts with initial coding, followed by focused, proceeded by axial and concludes at theoretical coding. However, the need for axial coding is questionable if the researcher uses memoing to conceptualise data (see, Charmaz, 2006).

In this study, I adopted Charmaz's (2006) perspectives on coding. In the initial coding, I read the first round of interviews and attributed codes (units of meaning) to sections of text. Coding the data involved generating labels for words or phrases that provided a sense of the situation. In the example below, labels were linked to what was said by Rachel. She felt that

her placement in a low decile school helped her realise that she wanted to be “more than just a teacher”.

#### Can you describe how your placements were?

...and then in my fourth year, I had two placements, one in a high decile school, which was great... but it was in my final placement, that was at a low decile school, so a low socioeconomic school that... I was like I want to work at low decile schools.

Influence of experiences during placements

#### What made you choose low decile schools?

I think the students... I think I can have more of an impact in the lower decile school. That's what it came down to. And I can contribute more in a school like this, you know, it's more of a pastor kind of role, looking after students and their well-being, which appeals to me more than, I guess a high decile school, I don't know... I think of it more of a caring role than just teaching. How do I help them learn skills that will help them in life? Not just passing assessments.

Students are her focus

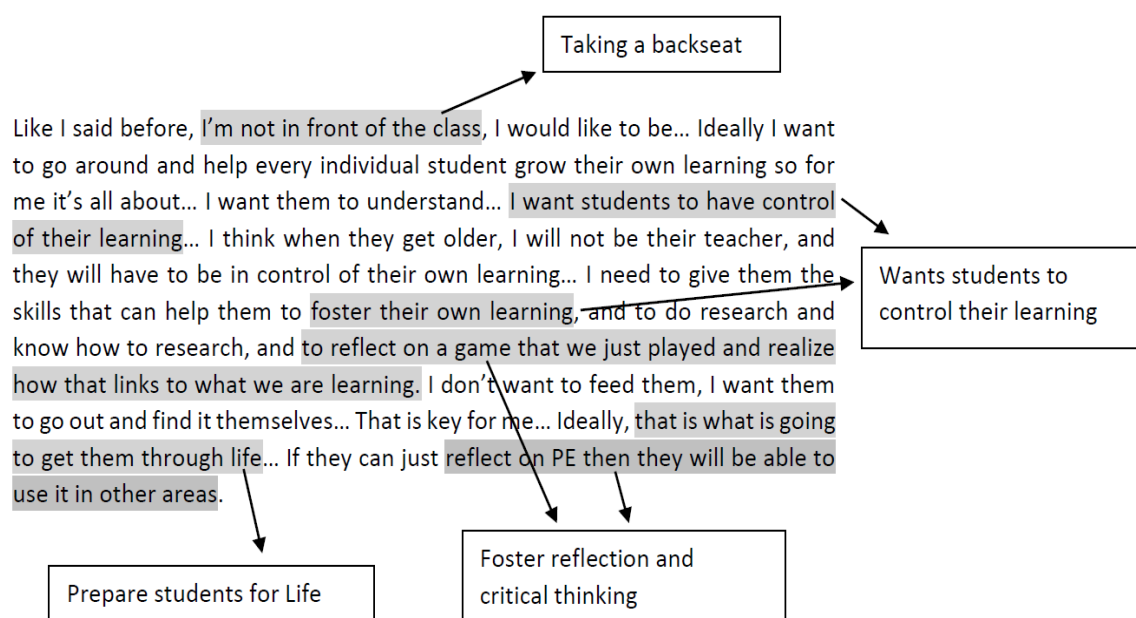
Be more than just a teacher/Prepare students for life

Desire to have positive impact as a teacher

#### 4.8.2 Constant Comparison.

According to Mruck and Mey (2010), the fact that GT is data-driven and its main goal is to stay close to the data results in constant data comparison. In this study, data was generated through interviews, and the analysis began straight after the first interview. In GT as soon as data gathering, the analysis commences. Thus, the codes developed from the interviews provided other opportunities from which I was able to generate further data (Glaser, 1978). For that reason, Amsteus (2014) suggests that to maintain the principles of inductive logic, comparing data against data is essential. This process of data comparison continues until theoretical saturation is reached. Carry on from the initial codes retrieved from the interview excerpt above, and after analysing them, Rachel's code (prepare students for life) links in with

Christina's, who also considered her role as a teacher as a way of preparing her students for the future. This is an example of constant comparison of data (comparing data against data) to find commonalities between them.



### 4.8.3 Memos.

Memos are considered by many authors, including Lempert (2010), as being an essential step during the analysis process in GT because it allows the researcher to progress from data description (initial coding) towards profound theoretical understanding, in other words towards the development of formal theory. Memoing was crucial during the study as it encouraged me to start analysing the data from the early stages of the coding process (Charmaz, 2006). The unstructured and creative nature of memos is considered its main attribute. In their essence, memos are a theoretical write-up of thoughts and ideas used as coding summaries that will, later on, contribute to theory development (Amsteus, 2014). Some of the memos I wrote became theoretical codes as they have shown the relationship between two categories developed during focused coding. Glaser (1978) introduced theoretical codes to explain “how



the substantive codes may relate to each other as hypotheses to be integrated into a theory” (p. 72). The process of memo writing helps the researcher to become aware of emerging categories and later of emerging theory.

An example of a memo, which occurred after the first round of interviews, was the importance that placements had for all the participants that pursued a teaching career, and how they developed ideas about their future approaches and themselves as future teachers during that period.

*Placements influenced their views about teaching and about themselves as future teachers*

All the participants that pursued physical education teacher education (PETE) have acknowledged the importance of placements, and acknowledged that that was probably the most significant part of their teacher education. For example, Christina recognized that what she learn in theory during University was important but placements were the closest teaching experience’ she had and where she learnt about herself as a teacher:

I think you take more out of the placements because it’s a real life experience, however in saying that, I would have not realize the importance of inquiry teaching or TGfU if I hadn’t learn about them previously.... So placements for me were the most important thing but I wouldn’t been as successful teacher if I didn’t have that knowledge... They kind of go hand-in-hand... but the placements are where you actually get in your teaching experience and you get to know yourself as a teacher and what type of teacher you are. (Christina, Interview 1)

Rachel shared the same idea as Sarah and acknowledge that the placements influenced her perception about her future self as teacher:

...my final placement was at a decile 2 school so low socioeconomic, and I was like I want to work at low decile schools... I realized the type of teachers I want to be....

I think the students... I think I can have more of an impact in the lower decile school. That's what it came down to... looking after students and their well-being, which appeals to me more than, I guess a high decile school, I don't know... I think of it more of a caring role than just teaching. How do I help them learn skills that will help them in life? (Rachel, Interview 1)

Both Mark and David talked about how placements were a big learning curve and how they were able to make some experiments and mistakes:

You go to teaching placements during University and you put it into practice... And I think that was the big learning for me, it was putting into practice .... You just try a whole heap of different stuff... (Mark, Interview 1)

... I'll never forget one lesson in particular where I was just trying to achieve too much, and the context and your group is really important, who you're trying to teach or coach, and I had a quite limited group who had some characters in there.... that lesson went particularly badly... I had a fantastic lecturer at that time...we reflected on that lesson, and reflected on the importance of adapting really... Reflecting on your goal and just picking one or two, maximum, sort of objectives and making it achievable. (David, Interview 1)

While the memo presented is just an example of the many memos I wrote during the analysis, some of them contributed to the development of theory as it is the case of the memo presented above.

#### **4.8.4 Theoretical Sensitivity.**

This was probably the most crucial phase of the data analysis. However, it was also the hardest, as being theoretically sensitive was linked to my ability to make abstractions, and that was greatly influenced by my background as a researcher. The importance of abstract thinking and the researchers' background was contemplated by Amsteus (2014). He sees theoretical sensitivity as the capacity to make abstractions not only from the data, but grounded in data. Kathy Charmaz (2006) also contemplated this, suggesting that the ability to be theoretically sensitive is not only but also, closely related to the researcher's biography. Contrarily, Glaser (1992) argued that the concepts generated by the researcher are discovered from the data and

symbolise a discovered perspective of the substantive area. As argued by Amsteus (2014), a researcher's sensitivity, and consequently theoretical sensitivity is associated with a number of dispositions, and cannot be controlled. Thus, taking into consideration the views above, abstract thinking, has become a part of developing theoretical sensitivity in GT perspectives such as Straussian, postmodernist and constructivist. (see Charmaz, 2006; Clarke, 2005; Kenny & Fourie, 2015; Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

As I discussed and reflected about in the introduction of this thesis, my own experiences as a teacher, coach, student, and also athlete granted me with a member status, as I have knowledge from my past experiences that may have remained undisclosed to the reader. For that reason, my previous experiences also developed a taken for granted knowledge that has to be made explicit (Finlay, 2002). It was my own experiences as a teacher and coach, within different contexts, that led me to understand the relevance of experiences and become more educated about how experience influenced the participants' beliefs and approaches to teaching and coaching. As the influence of social interaction across different settings (in teachers' and coaches' development of beliefs and practices) became more and more relevant, I began a process of theoretical integration that described the development of emerging theory from the substantive area to the literature. At this stage, the literature was introduced with the goal of providing depth to the emerging theory and showing possible discrepancies in current knowledge (Urquhart, 2013).

It was the literature on experience research that illuminated them as a method that is deeply contextual, and that reflects lived learning experiences. Hence, the teachers/coaches in the study used determined words to explain their beliefs and position about teaching and coaching, providing an understanding of the participants' presumed knowledge (Borer & Fontana, 2012). For example, the participants articulated the importance of their experiences in the development of their beliefs and practice. However, and while these became strong

indicators of the importance of experience from the participant's own words, it was only later when integrating the literature that a link between these views and the importance of *interaction and context* was established. A theory began to emerge, which remained grounded and reflective of the data, as the extract shows below.

The participants' notions of PE and sport, and consequently their beliefs about teaching and coaching as well as their approaches seem to have been influenced and developed through varied experiences in the course of their lives. Despite the fact that during the study some discrepancies were identified, the participants' learning experiences have shown the importance of *social interaction and context* (Dewey 1938; Vygotsky, 1978; Lawson, 1983; Bruner, 1996). For example, this was evident in Mark's interviews:

I cannot really remember specifically what I have learnt in theory at university... what I can remember is learning through experiences really. (Mark)

Teaching at Luther High School certainly changed the way, you know, the way I think. When I first started teaching...it was very much... This is what we need to do and bang bang bang, as opposed to students unpacking things by themselves, you know, a lot more teacher directed kind of learning... I like to think I sort of moved towards the student centred style of teaching as opposed to, you know, do this that and do that. (Mark)

And the same idea was noticeable in Rachel's case:

And then my final placement was at a decile 2 school, so a low socioeconomic school. Working there I realized that I wanted to work at low decile schools.

... I think I can have more impact in a lower decile school.... I think...It's important to emphasize that I'm not the expert and I'm learning as well and what they bring to the classroom I might not know and I'm interesting in that

And then we had a great degree when I was at University and we learnt how to be culturally responsive and I was like... all fell into place and click to me. Students need to know that they are valued and they have something to bring.

When using GT, theoretical description is encouraged over the illustration of the participants' voice (Charmaz & Belgrave, 2012). This was hard to achieve due to the integration of narrative analysis. However, I was able to use narrative analysis to generate meaning from the themes that emerged from the grounded theory process and combine that with a sound understanding of the literature, to provide a reflexive and thoughtful connection between the participants' voice and words. These interpretations and meanings were present in

the following interviews and across interviews that led to theoretical saturation, or theoretical sufficiency (Morse, 1995).

#### **4.8.5 Theoretical Saturation.**

Theoretical saturation is the main goal when using grounded theory and is, unquestionably, the “stamp” of good qualitative research (Morse, 1995), as theoretical saturation entails a well-developed theory (Glaser, 1978). However, in order to achieve theoretical saturation a researcher needs to be sensitive towards the emergent theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In the literature, this has been denominated of theoretical sensitivity (see, Glaser, 1978) (see section above for more detailed information). This term (theoretical sensitivity) has generated clear and strong divisions among researchers, and particularly between Glaser and Strauss, the founders of GT. For Glaser, to be theoretically sensitive a researcher should have attributes such as, a wide reading and deep comprehension of the components of theory (Glaser, 1992). Opposite, Strauss believed that theory should be integrated at the axial coding stage, with verification becoming an element of theory development (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). In Glaser’s perspective, Strauss’ view on theoretical sensitivity undermine the inductive principles of GT, as Glaser considered that it forces data rather than allow and believe in its emergence (Glaser, 1992).

Recently, linked to the idea that theoretical saturation is achieved through being theoretically sensitive, Charmaz (2006) recognises saturation as a process of meaning making, where the main question is if the theory is adequate and relevant enough. The theory developed is unique, relevant and fits a particular site of study. For that reason, saturation cannot be compared to frequency but instead should be judged by its relevance.

Grappling with issues related to teachers and coaches’ development of practices and beliefs (about teaching and coaching), and merging this with the participants’ own experiences

and how their beliefs were developed throughout their lives in particular settings was significant to this study. This represented theoretical saturation, where the theory fit, had significance and could be adapted and modified, regardless of being abstracted from the data. It fits because the development of teachers and coaches' beliefs about teaching and coaching in New Zealand have been influenced most notably by interactions and experiences, being a social process that takes place and can be shaped by specific contexts. It has relevance at a time when the boundaries between teacher/coach development, their beliefs about teaching and coaching, and the need for innovative practices in a field that has been struggling to accompany the changes is blurred. And lastly, it is modifiable because when dealing with teachers and coaches' beliefs, which is something that is not easily expressed, and it is not possible to measure, but that has a direct impact in their teaching and coaching approaches, it may change according to the context in which they are inserted. By situating my analysis as time and place dependent, which is reflective of a CGT, this was made evident.

#### **4.9 Ethical Considerations**

This study followed strict measures to guarantee and protect the rights of the participants and to ensure the research was executed in a fair and equitable manner. Before starting the process of data collection, I applied for approval to the Educational Research in Human Ethics Committee at the University of Canterbury. Once I received the letter of approval (see appendix 4), I formally contacted the Principals of the Secondary School(s) I intended to do my research on, and gave them a consent form, asking for permission to carry out my research in their school. After having authorisation from the Principles, I handed consent forms to each participant in order to cover administrative aspects of their participation in the study. With each consent form, I also handed a cover letter with a brief explanation on the intent of the study, the frequency and duration of the interviews, and emphasised that

confidentiality of the data collected was ensured. To guarantee complete transparency, the participants were also informed about how the data was going to be stored, and the possibility of being re-used in future research. I finalised the cover letter by reinforcing to them that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any point without penalties, and in case that happened, I would do my best to remove all the information related to them from the study.

#### **4.9.1 Informed Consent and Cover Letter.**

As mentioned above, prior to the start of the data collection, the Principles of each school and the participants were informed of the nature and extent of the research. After having permission to get access to the school in order to carry out my research, and since all of the participants were adults, I gave to each participant a consent form (see appendix 5) for them to sign, where they agreed to participate in the study and gave permission to use all the information collected during the interviews and observations. Also, as described in detail above, each consent form was accompanied by a cover letter (see appendix 5), with a brief explanation about the purpose and aim of the study.

#### **4.9.2 Confidentiality and Anonymity.**

Some measures were taken to protect the participants' identities and keep their privacy. I attributed to each participant and school a pseudonym that didn't present any resemblance to their real name (Creswell, 2013). The access to all the recorded interviews and audiotapes were limited to me as a researcher, and all the transcripts and other records were securely stored (Davidson, 1996), and will remain in my possession for five years. After that period all the information will be destroyed.

## **5. Thesis Findings**

### **5.1 Introduction**

The findings are presented in a way that reflects the combined narrative inquiry (NI) and constructivist grounded theory (CGT) methodology adopted in this study. It is also structured in a way that allows answering the central questions of this study, which were: what are the participants' beliefs about teaching and coaching and how had they been developed over their lives? The findings are presented in three sections comprised of individual chapters (chapters 6-17). The first section (chapter 6) identifies the participants' beliefs about teaching and coaching. Section two comprises five chapters (7-12) with each chapter devoted to telling the narratives of each participant and finishing with a summary of each story at the end of the chapter followed by a final discussion. The third section comprises three chapters (15-17) which are the three themes developed through the grounded theory approach.

Section one identifies the participants' beliefs about teaching and coaching, and features of their practice. This section used data developed from observations, notes and the first round of interviews. The second section comprises the participants' narratives. They are presented as five separate chapters that provide insight into the nature of their experiences over time, and how their beliefs about teaching and coaching games and team sports were shaped by the social, cultural and institutional contexts they passed through with each person's story presented as an individual chapter. In line with the NI approach, their narratives were kept intact as much as possible with each one presented in chronological order. This allows for the contextualization of the themes developed through the GT process. At the end of each story, I provide a summary that highlights significant aspects of their stories that are relevant to answering the central question of this study and which informed the development of the main



themes. At the end of this section, I provide an overall summary and discussion about the five participants' stories. All the participants' names and names of schools are pseudonyms used to protect anonymity.

## 6. Teaching and Coaching Beliefs

### 6.1 Mark

Mark's beliefs about teaching were student-centred, but his beliefs about coaching were coach-centred, which was further complicated by him referring to both his coaching and teaching as being student/athlete-centred in an informal conversation with me. He believed that as a teacher, he could make "solid professional judgments" and "adapt to different situations, different classes, different age groups, and different types of students". For him, the main objective was to "identify the students' needs" and find a way to make that work with the curriculum goals, which suggests a strong belief in a student-centred approach. Mark's views on being adaptable to meet the student's needs, "using a whole range of things whether it is student directed right through teacher directed, and everything else in between", suggested that he had an open mind to change and innovation that allowed him to mix different approaches to better suit his students. Mark also believed in the importance of developing positive relationships and encouraging enjoyment:

Of course, it's got to be enjoyment... It probably should be the first thing actually... You know, enjoy working hard, enjoy the feeling of improvement, and yeah, interpersonal skills and relationships, I suppose are pretty important too, I mean it's a strength in the curriculum for health and PE, you know, I want to have positive relationships, not just myself with the students, but the students amongst each other...

It's not just learning technique, it's learning everything I suppose, in terms of relationships with other people, learning about yourself and how you operate in certain

scenarios... So, I guess building whatever you want to work on through games... you can say that games are a lot more open and a lot less controlled.

After the first interview, it seemed clear to me that Mark's articulated beliefs about teaching aligned with a student-centred approach. However, after observing a few classes I noticed inconsistencies between what he said he did and what he actually did. Features of his sessions, such as the dominance of direct instruction, repetitive technical drills and prescriptive feedback contradicted what the literature suggests are the features of GBA (see, Light, 2013). On the other hand, his articulated beliefs about coaching were consistent with his coach-centred practice that he expressed in the first interview: "the coaches are there to run the show and the players...fall within what the coach wants as opposed to the other way around". He believed that the coach was the one in charge of making all the decisions. His practice was very much coach/teacher centred and he believed this was how he should coach, yet, his claims that he took an athlete-centred approach were contradicted in his practice. There were, however, elements of a student/athlete-centred approach in Mark's practice. Mostly during games that had some sort of competitive element, the players appeared to be more engaged in the task and to be enjoying the session. Mark seemed to be able to foster that response from his players by changing his approach and adopting a motivational speech, replacing his direct feedback by encouragement.

After the first round of interviews and observations, it seemed like Mark's articulated beliefs about teaching that were student-centred, were the opposite of his beliefs in a coach-centred approach for coaching. But even though his perceptions about his coaching and teaching style didn't always correspond to reality, it was possible for me to identify features of GBAs and a student/athlete-centred approach in both his coaching and teaching.

## 6.2 Rachel

Similar to Mark, Rachel expressed different beliefs about teaching and coaching. She believed in a student-centred approach and adopting “a holistic approach” for teaching, but for coaching, she believed that “the coach is the expert” which suggests that her beliefs were coach-centred.

During the first interview, and in contradiction to her beliefs about coaching, Rachel said that as a teacher “it’s important to emphasise that I’m not the expert and I’m learning as well, and what they bring to the classroom I might not know, and I’m interested in that”. She saw her approach as being “student-centred, innovative... culturally responsive and very relational”, and this was something that I also observed during her classes. Rachel’s sessions always started with a brief discussion with her students about the goals for that session (Kaupapa<sup>6</sup>) that she referred to as co-constructing the lesson. She used to ask them: “this is the outcome, how do you want to get there or what do you need to do to get here?”

Most of the time, games were a big part of Rachel’s sessions where she used to adopt a spectator position and let the students take some control, allowing them set up the game, and make the rules together. She wanted to “empower the students to take ownership of their own learning”, and this was evident during the observations. Her beliefs about teaching were not only student-centred, but she was also encouraging and teaching her students by using GBAs. However, like Mark, Rachel’s coaching approach was completely different from her teaching. She had “all the knowledge” so the athletes would “come to me to be taught something”. She believed that “they want to win games, they need to get better, so I will coach them”. In Rachel’s training sessions the players didn’t have much input, and she adopted a posture of being much more in command, totally different from what I observed in her classes. She also

---

<sup>6</sup> Māori word for topic, policy, matter for discussion, plan, purpose (Māori Dictionary)

said during the first interview that “the only time I feel like the players should talk and give input is when I ask them a question”. As a coach, Rachel also seemed to take a gender-specific approach, as she coached boys and girls differently and preferred coaching boys. For her, girls are “very emotional, and they get emotionally invested in something”. Even though “they picked up drills really fast”, Rachel felt that she had to “praise them at every opportunity”.

On the other hand, she felt that boys “are not sensitive” and she could be “honest...almost ruthless” with them and say, “that was terrible, you just missed your layup, sorted out”. They didn’t have to be looked after and for that reason “I really enjoyed coaching boys better than girls”. The fact that Rachel was able to change her approach according to the athletes she had has shown that her players’ needs were her priority. This suggests a belief in an athlete-centred approach, however, her preference in coaching boys and the explanation she gave for it suggests that she deeply believed in a coach-centred approach. The interviews and observations of Rachel’s practice suggest that not only her beliefs about teaching were student-centred but also her practice aligned with what she believed. Contradictory to Mark, she also perceived her teaching approach as being student-centred which was confirmed after my observations which suggests that her articulated beliefs were translated into her actions. However, and similar to Mark, Rachel demonstrated opposing beliefs about coaching during interviews that were also supported by her practice. Even though she has shown some characteristics of an athlete-centred approach, such as adaptability, most of the features in Rachel’s practice aligned with her beliefs in a coach-centred approach.

### **6.3 David**

David’s beliefs about teaching and coaching and his practice in both were consistent. He referred to his approach as being “an empowerment approach”, and he said he tries “to include the players in the session and some of the decision-making”. He appeared to believe in

a student/athlete-centred approach, and his beliefs also seemed to be linked to his attempts of implementing GBAs in his practice.

David said that he puts “a real emphasis on developing leadership within the groups that I coach but also developing a tactical understanding and appreciation of how we’re trying to play the game”, and this was visible in his practice. During my observations, David’s session was structured in a way that reflected the use of GBAs. He started with a game as a warm-up that was related to what he wanted his players to achieve by the end of the session (block defence at the time). He then realised that the game was not flowing because their passing technique was not good enough, so he changed to a drill to develop that technical element. He didn’t spend too much time repeating that skill and moved back to a game. It was interesting that he introduced a game with an imaginary ball and the players were much more motivated in that game than on the first one where they were actually handling a ball. That game seemed to allow the players to imagine all sorts of different situations that could happen during a game, and react to them as the game progressed. David’s ability to see beyond technical drills and formal game situations suggests that his beliefs in an athlete-centred approach and the positive effects of the use of GBAs were very strong.

In his interview, David’s ideas about how he structures his sessions and classes coincided with what I had previously observed:

I think that a good model for a lesson or a coaching session is warm-up into a game related to the theme you’re working on, coming out of that game after identifying some technical areas that need development and then going back into the game...

Questioning was also one of the features of David's practice, as he said he tries "to use the questioning approach and get them into a game very early and stopping them at key moments... teachable moments", and reinforced that during the first interview:

Yeah, questioning would be one of the main focus within my sessions. The session you observed a few weeks ago, the real focus there was on how the players were defending and adopting their positioning as a defender in the game basically... I was trying to reinforce through the game that we structure and then stop them every now and again, questioning them, making sure they understood their roles and what they were trying to achieve, yeah.

Unfortunately, at the time of the study David was only coaching so it was not possible to compare his teaching and coaching approaches through the observations, but he said that it would "be fairly similar how I try to teach and coach".

David's approach to coaching seemed to reflect his strong beliefs in an athlete-centred approach that also appeared to be reinforced by his efforts in implementing GBAs in his practice. And like Rachel, the way he perceived his coaching style corresponded to what I have observed, showing that his articulated beliefs were being translated to practice.

#### **6.4 Christina**

Of all the participants Christina had the least experience, as she had only been teaching for two and a half months by the time of the study. Despite her short journey as a teacher, her beliefs about teaching and coaching were very similar to Mark's and Rachel's. Regarding teaching, she seemed to strongly believe in a student-centred approach as she said in her first interview that she wanted her students to "be in charge of their own learning". She wanted her

students to “give me the answers, I don’t want to tell them... It’s all about questioning and inquiry kind of, finding their own learning, finding out information”. Christina’s idea was to “have a holistic approach, it’s not rule, rule, rule, because I want them to enjoy it”, and she’d “rather put the rules aside and make them see the value of trying to fit the content of the lesson in the game”.

However, her beliefs about coaching appeared to be the opposite. She believed in a coach-centred approach as she said that when coaching “the game is there for them to upgrade their skill level...” and she revealed that:

When coaching I am more in command, because I have more knowledge and I am expressing my knowledge to them, whereas when I'm a teacher, I want them to be capable of finding their own answers, and as a coach, I provide the answers because that's my job.

My observations of Christina’s practice in both her classes and training sessions reinforced what she had described about her teaching and coaching beliefs and approaches. Christina’s classes were all about making sure that the students were an active part of the learning process, and their opinions were of great importance for her. There was a class where she had in mind a game of “bench ball dodge ball” but most of the students didn’t want to play that game, and her immediate reaction was to give the students the choice of choosing a different game. They chose another game based on what the majority wanted to play, and the students were much more engaged, and it was visible that they were enjoying the class. I had the opportunity to ask Christina why she chose to change the game, and she said:



There's no reason for doing bench ball dodge ball if the majority doesn't want to play, so I get the majority to choose, so then they have a voice. When the majority agrees with a game that means the majority will play or enjoy the sport because they were the ones choosing it. So that's why I didn't go ahead with the whole bench ball dodge ball today because no one wanted to do it. If no one wants to do it then will be hard to learn that content so yeah...

On the other hand, in her training session, I hardly heard the players through practice. They seemed to be enjoying each other's company, and they appeared to be motivated, but they didn't have much input in the game or exercises. Most of the times, Christina told them exactly what she wanted them to do and was far more prescriptive in her feedbacks and interactions with the players than is recommended in the literature (see, Light, 2013). The exercises were mostly technique oriented, and the session followed a traditional format with a quick warm-up, followed by specific exercises to develop individual skill, and only at the end, they did a game.

Christina's approaches to teaching and coaching seemed to reflect both her beliefs in a student-centred approach for teaching, and in a coach-centred approach for coaching. My observations of Christina's practice suggest that she had a pretty good understanding of her own practice, and what she believed was clear in the way she taught her students and coached her athletes. However, and similar to Mark and Rachel, Christina was unable to see any connection between teaching and coaching, culminating in opposite beliefs and approaches.

## **6.5 Sarah**

Sarah was only coaching at the time of the study and had never had any experience as a PE teacher. Sarah's posture and approach when coaching was very particular and distinct

from the other participants. After observing a couple of training sessions, I noticed that she had a very close relationship with her players. She knew them not only as her players, inside the court, but also as individuals outside of the court, which is a feature of athlete-centred coaching in New Zealand (see, Kidman, Hadfield & Thorpe, 2011). She knew if they had personal problems that needed her attention or just if they needed time and space. I witnessed some occasions where she left the group playing a game or doing a drill to be able to have one on one time with a player. I realised that the time Sarah made available to listen to her players' problems, and her genuine concern about them built a trustworthy relationship that sometimes seemed like a mother and daughter bond between Sarah and her players. This was not only visible in her sessions but was also mentioned by Sarah during her first interview as she said that "I'm too motherly sometimes and I look after my players too much".

One of Sarah's sessions was early in the morning before the girls started school, but I've noticed that even that early the girls were in a good mood and it didn't seem to be a burden for them to wake up early to go to practice. Sarah said that practice has to be about "fun, and then you're adding drills, and they don't realise they're learning at the same time as they're having fun, and the next time you see them play it's... there are no words to describe that. It's incredible". Sarah's players were definitely having fun. It was visible that they were enjoying each other's company and that the sessions were more than just a place where they had to learn how to play a sport. In fact, that seemed to be the secondary reason why they wanted to be there and play basketball. She also believed that if the sessions were fun the learning would be easier:

... So, it's more natural, they're not sort of having to lock in... being self-aware... Of course you got to be self-aware but it's like this still got to be fun, you've got to enjoy the sport, if you don't enjoy sport you are not going to play it.

Even though Sarah's training sessions were sometimes very focused on technical elements of the game, and her feedback very prescriptive, my observations have shown that she tries to create a favourable learning environment, through making the sessions fun and enjoyable. The importance she places on relationships suggests that her beliefs about coaching are athlete-centred. The fact that she believes learning should be fun and should also be natural came to reinforce my initial thoughts that her beliefs are strongly athlete-centred. As distinct as Sarah's approach was from the other participants, it had features that were undeniably athlete-centred, and more than just having features related to how the sessions were structured and the use of GBAs, the humanistic aspect that characterises an athlete-centred approach was always present (see, Light & Harvey, 2017).

## **7. Participants' Narratives**

### **7.1 Introduction**

In this section, I present the participants' narratives. They provide insight into the nature of their experiences over their lives and how a complexity of factors shaped their beliefs and approaches about teaching and coaching games/team sports. Each participant's story is presented as an individual chapter, and in line with the NI approach, their narratives were kept intact as much as possible, being presented in a chronological order for better understanding.

## 8. Mark

**“I don’t coach for mediocrity I try to get the best out of people, and that’s encouraged as part of our culture”**

Mark was born in a town on the south of the South Island in New Zealand and lived there until he was eleven years old. He was a “born and bred New Zealander” with a (European) New Zealand mother and a Samoan father. He was honoured to come from a different culture and demonstrated pride in being different:

In terms of being different from normal Kiwis, I think that does play a part in acknowledging the cultural differences between a range of cultures... the fact that I am different from most New Zealanders it’s quite cool, you know, to be unique like that I think it gives me the skills to acknowledge other cultures because I know what it’s like to be different.

While growing up, Mark recalled how “in my hometown, there are not many Samoan people, is just sort of New Zealand European or Pākehā people”, but he did have some cousins he used to “hang out” with on the weekends or after school. He used to spend most of his time playing outside with his friends, even if the weather wouldn’t invite being outside. His parents bought him a Lego set to keep him at home, but it didn’t work, and he remembered feeling uncomfortable without a ball in his hands. Even though the Samoan community in Mark’s hometown was small, the Samoan culture had a relevant role in his life:

The Samoan culture does play a big part in my life. Probably not as traditional as the typical Samoan culture, you know, when my dad came over he really tried to become a Kiwi, not necessarily negate his Samoan side, but the old-school traditions we didn't really do a heck of a lot of. Probably the biggest part of our culture are the rewards through hard work. I was always taught through the Samoan culture that the things don't just happen, you have to work your butt off for it, that is probably the biggest thing out of the Samoan culture, is that you need to work hard.

As a child, Mark played a range of sports that included rugby, cricket and volleyball, representing New Zealand in his age group. At the age of eleven, he moved to Christchurch and lived there until he was about twenty-three. There, he finished high school and University, and became a professional rugby player at the age of twenty. During high school, Mark attended St. Nicolas College, which was a private, independent co-educational school, courtesy of a rugby scholarship. The school had a very traditional approach to teaching and coaching, with an emphasis on academic rigour and sporting excellence. Mark said he took a lot from what he learnt at St. Nicolas and he appreciated particular teachers and coaches:

I had a coach that I really looked up to...you know, he was someone that I admired, and I thought, the things that you're doing for some of the young people, I'd love to be able to do the same. The work ethic and hard work he instilled in his athletes was something that I really identified with. I also had a couple of really cool teachers, there are really good teachers here, at St. Nicolas, and I really thought, you know... what, if I could be anything like them... that would be pretty cool. I also had a volleyball coach that, you know, he drove me to really push myself and, you know, overcome the barriers, so I thought that would be pretty cool to do the same for others.

The choice of becoming a Physical Education teacher was not Mark's first option as he was planning to go to law school. He thought that by pursuing law, he would have more financial stability in life. However, he changed his mind due to his respect for his teachers and coaches that made him want to give back to the community and have others look up to him the same way he looked up to his former coaches and teachers. It was also because of his deep love for physical activity that he developed as a child while playing outside with his cousins and friends:

I think that's where my passion for physical activity comes from... It was fun; it was what we did, we didn't have PlayStation or anything like that... We made our own fun a lot of the time... Made up our own rules... Made up our own games. Once we played rugby on concrete...

Mark entered University to become a PE teacher and enjoyed very much the time while he was there. He felt that he learnt a lot but also felt that he learnt best from his experiences of school placements. He said he "cannot really remember specifically what I have learnt in theory at University... for example, I don't remember specifically what I've learnt about game-based approaches, but what I can remember is learning through experiences really". Even though Mark didn't recall any game-based approach by name, he had a sound idea of what the main goal was and the difference between traditional approaches and game-based approaches:

I guess it's just learning through games and experiences... It's not just learning technique in a technical environment, is learning everything within the curriculum. I suppose, in terms of relationships with other people, learning about yourself and how

you operate in certain scenarios... So, I guess building whatever you want to work on through games and... I guess the difference between games and other drills is... I suppose you could say that games are a lot more open and a lot less controlled so, you not necessarily need to run between this cone and that cone, you're playing a game where all sorts of scenarios can happen because that is what happens in game situations and just basing your learning around that approach....

Mark could also vividly remember how well he was able to implement GBA during his practica and felt these experiences helped him find himself as a teacher:

I went to five teaching placements altogether, and every teaching placement just gave me more and more of like... a passion for getting out to the schools and, you know, teach... At the placements, they had a couple of key concepts that they wanted us to look at in terms of teaching approaches, you know, TGfU, play teach play, episodic lessons, game sense, we usually talked about it in PE prep and then you would go out and give it a crack... I really enjoyed it to be fair. Instead of going out there with these crazy ideas and try to mix it up, you would focus on one or two maybe, key teaching methods, give it a try and see how it goes. And then in the next placement try another one, so you're sort of building up ideas about the teaching styles and working out what you're doing and what you enjoy. How you can adapt it to different types of students, different type of classes... That's probably my greatest memories of each placement.

After five years, at twenty-three years old, Mark graduated and headed up to Auckland where he got his first job. At the time, he was still a professional rugby player, and the school gave him the opportunity to play rugby half of the year and teach the other half, which was



very appealing to him, and further enhanced his passion for teaching and coaching. In Auckland, Mark taught for two years at a public, low decile school where most of the students were from low socioeconomic backgrounds. Most of the times Mark had to help his students overcome their personal problems instead of just teaching them a sport:

I taught in a very diverse school where most of my students were from very tough neighbourhoods and, you know, their problems at home, most of the times would come first in my class... My priority was to create a good environment and what I had to teach them would come later...it was not the focal point. It was really hard, but I really enjoyed being able to help them.

Not because of the school but due to the cost of living in Auckland, Mark decided to move back to Christchurch, where he taught at Luther High School for six years, becoming head of the PE department after three or four years of being there. Luther High School was a contemporary, co-educational public school, ranked as a high decile school that was located in a semi-rural environment. During his time at Luther, they started to look a lot more at modern, student-centred approaches to teach PE, and through the interaction with his colleagues he began to notice some changes in his teaching style:

Yeah, it certainly changed the way, you know, the way I think. When I first started teaching I wasn't that bad but, you know, it was very much... This is what we need to do and bang bang bang, as opposed to students unpacking things by themselves, you know, a lot more teacher directed kind of learning... I like to think I sort of moved towards a student-centred style of teaching as opposed to, you know, do this that and do that, etc. So that certainly changed a few things, but my philosophy of teaching

hasn't changed a hell of a lot, you know, in terms of what's best for students and I want to enjoy it and have positive interactions, that's still the same.

Before working at Luther High School, Mark's beliefs about teaching and coaching were predominantly shaped by his Samoan culture, where working hard to achieve excellence was very important. His beliefs were then reinforced by the traditional culture and high demand for results he experienced as a student at St. Nicolas. It was Mark's experience as a PE teacher at Luther High School that clicked with what he had learnt at University about a more modern, student/athlete-centred approach to teaching and coaching. Currently, Mark sees his teaching style as being student-centred:

It's all about meeting the students' needs, identifying, you know, what are their needs and what are the curriculum sort of goals, I suppose, and finding a happy match to make it all work. For example, I might teach one class one way, and teach another class differently because I have different types of student. I like to think that I'm pretty adaptable, and using a whole range of, you know, things whether it is student directed right through teacher directed, and everything else in between... And I also like to think that I can read, or make solid professional judgments on, what I should be doing in the class... I wouldn't say I have a hard and fast way of teaching... I'd like to think, hopefully, that I can adapt to different situations, different classes, different age groups, and different types of students.

After five years at Luther High School, Mark had an opportunity to go back and teach at St Nicolas College which was the school that saw him Develop into an outstanding rugby player during his high school days, and he couldn't turn it down. The culture at St. Nicolas was

very different from the culture at Luther High School. Luther High School welcomed visionary and modern approaches to teaching and the main focus was to generate a balance between sporting, academics, cultural and social opportunities. They believed that by creating that balance, learning would come naturally. The staff was also encouraged to understand that every student learns differently, at their own pace and that the teachers should encourage the students to approach tasks with an open mind. On the other hand, St. Nicolas College's culture was directed by a tradition of excellence in academic and sporting endeavours, and they wanted to provide to their students world-class learning opportunities.

As much as Mark enjoyed his time at Luther, he wanted to give back to the school that gave him so much through rugby. Also, his beliefs about hard work that he felt were emphasised in the Samoan culture, and that he grew up with, made that choice easier:

...that's one of the things that drew me here, to St. Nicholas is... and I'm not saying that other schools don't have those but, I think it's a little bit more explicit here, is a real demand for excellence, you know, high achievement, and I think the environment here is an environment where, you know, if you achieve high it's cool, if you know what I mean... There's a real culture of excellence here, and everybody works hard to succeed, and that's my kind of environment, you know, I don't coach for mediocrity I coach trying to get the best out of people, and that's encouraged as part of our culture.

Although Mark's beliefs about working hard to achieve excellence aligned with St. Nicholas philosophy, especially regarding his coaching. However, his beliefs about teaching, adopting a student-centred approach and meeting the students' needs were not compatible with the demand for results that was fostered by the school. Mark's teaching and coaching style had thus, been fluctuating between a student-centred approach and a teacher/coach-centred

approach that seems to be linked with an internal conflict between his beliefs and the school culture of demand for excellence:

I think instinctively I would go to the coach/teacher-centred approach, to be honest. If I'm not sure where to go, I'm always like 'okay this is what we're going to do', and then I see how it goes and then adapt from there as opposed the other way around. So, I definitely, rightly or wrongly, take control... I take a step back in terms of, right I feel like I need to take over. Because you know, sometimes, in sport and teaching things start falling apart, so I need to stop, take a step back, and then go forward from there.

Also, Mark always believed that "the coaches are there, you know, to run the show and the players...we fall within what the coach wants as opposed to the other way around". According to him, he doesn't "coach for mediocrity I coach trying to get the best out of people, and that's encouraged as part of our culture". His beliefs led him to a coaching approach at St. Nicolas that was more strict and demanding than the way he taught PE because of their motivation and the drive for performance:

When I coach the students, you know, they have chosen to be there, they want to play volleyball or play rugby whereas the students that I teach don't necessarily have the same attitude if you know what I mean... they are there because they have to be because PE is compulsory. So I think, with coaching I'm a lot more demanding. Not that I'm not demanding with teaching, but is a different kind of 'demanding', you know, I'll push, I'll drive, you know, get the absolute maximum out of them when I'm coaching whereas with teaching, you know, if you do that I think they'll lose a lot of interest and a lot of engagement in my classes.

The differences between the main goals of Sport and PE as Mark saw it, and their nature also accentuated the contrast between his coaching approach and teaching approach. This was because he saw “traditional” coach-centred coaching with its emphasis on mastering technique through repetitive drills:

When coaching, I teach students to play sports, I teach how to work hard, I teach them how to develop skills, and at the end of the day, I teach them to compete whereas PE is not quite so competitive. The competitive element isn't quite there because things are all about individual development.

## **8.1 Summary**

Mark's story appears to be complex and shows a variety of factors shaping his practice and beliefs about teaching and coaching in opposite directions. Mark articulated beliefs in a student/athlete-centred approach for both teaching and coaching, but the experiences he had over his life appeared to have created a division between teaching and coaching for him.

Mark's beliefs about teaching, in a student-centred approach, seemed to have been shaped from a very young age through his experiences of unstructured play with his friends. He then reconnected with this aspect of Samoan culture embodied as a child during his tertiary education, where he enjoyed the placements and had the opportunity to learn about GBAs. Those experiences seemed to have strengthened his disposition toward a student-centred approach and the use of GBAs, which was further enhanced by Mark's experiences during his first years as a PE teacher. He linked what he had learnt at University and the innovative, student-centred approaches that were being encouraged by Luther High School when he was teaching there. Encouraged through informal conversations with his colleagues at the school, Mark started to notice changes in the way he thought and taught. Mark's experiences during

University seemed to align with the social interactions he had and the school culture to encourage him to lean toward a student/athlete-centred approach.

On the other hand, Mark's beliefs about coaching were coach-centred with the Samoan culture being the early catalyst of his inclination toward a coach-centred approach. Contrary to the beliefs in a student-centred approach that Mark had unconsciously developed about teaching through his childhood experiences, when coaching, the values he learnt through the Samoan culture, seemed to have strongly influenced his inclination toward a coach-centred approach. Mark's inclination toward a coach/teacher-centred approach was far more evident in his coaching as he seemed to link those values with performance and the need to get results. This suggests he did not think that athlete-centred approaches to coaching were effective in improving performance, which is contradicted by a wealth of research (see, Pill, 2017). For Mark, performance seemed to be closely related to the use of a traditional approach, more coach-centred. Although the influence of the Samoan culture in Mark's beliefs about coaching appeared to have been subtle, it had great importance for him when he decided to go back to St. Nicolas, which was a school that particularly aligned with his cultural inclinations and his perceptions about success and hard work.

In Mark's mind, teaching and coaching seemed to be completely separate, and this was evident by his inability to see any connection or similarities between both. For him, PE and Sport had different aims with PE being "individual development", and Sport competition. His interest in individual personal development aligned with a student-centred approach encouraged by the New Zealand Physical Education Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 1999, 2005, 2007) that Mark has learnt about during University. However, the disparity in his way of thinking suggests that during his tertiary education, where he learnt more about student-centred approaches and GBA, the link between teaching and coaching was not made, reinforcing the differences between his teaching and coaching beliefs. In addition to that, the

different school settings Mark has taught in since becoming a teacher seemed to have enhanced or lessen the differences between teaching and coaching, as Mark's practice appeared to have suffered some changes depending on the school culture and its vision.

## 9. Rachel

**“I think that’s a different hat. Teaching hat on, it’s about sharing power, coaching hat on, I have all the knowledge”**

Rachel was born in New Zealand, in a town south of Christchurch where she did all her schooling up to high school. She moved to Christchurch to complete her undergraduate studies and spent four years at University in the College of Education, remaining in Christchurch where she began her teaching career. She had European New Zealander and Māori parents and always valued her Māori culture. However, she said her parents did not encourage her to know more about her culture, and as she got older she regretted not having more connection with her Māori roots:

...my dad is Māori... his whole family lives in the North Island apart from three of his brothers. They all speak Te Reo Māori, different language, fluent in that. They understand their whakapapa, so that’s their history, and where they’re from, and their ancestors, they understand everything around being Māori and what it means. That’s his family. My mum is European born and raised in New Zealand in the South Island... the way I see is that when I go to school, it’s all about my mom’s side. So, it’s all European. The education system is sorted for European people and... This is generally speaking... So, I would go to school and leave my dad’s side at the gate you know? I’m not bringing him into class. I speak mom’s language; I speak English, I don’t learn about my culture, I don’t learn about being Māori, I don’t learn the language I don’t know it... So, you see that disconnect, it doesn’t make sense.



Rachel expressed sadness and a little bit of frustration for not being closer, and not knowing more about her roots, as she always demonstrated a desire to embrace her father's cultural side:

I don't know the language. My whole family do, and I don't know that. I'm not familiar with some of the protocols, sometimes when I stay on the marae<sup>7</sup>, or I visit family, I feel almost out of place, and unfamiliar with that environment, and I don't want to feel like that. I want to embrace it and feel comfortable and feel like I know what I'm doing, and I know what everything means, and I can speak that language, and I want to identify more with that.

Despite the feeling of being disconnected with her culture, Rachel was proud to be Māori and placed great importance on the history of her culture and the knowledge of it she acquired through the years. For example, she emphasised how important sport was for the Māori culture:

...That's historical. When Māori settled in New Zealand, they had to hunt and gather their food, they were very active all the time, then from there the traditional games were created based on myths and legends, and that's where kī-o-rahi<sup>8</sup> comes from, it's based on legend, and it's really important.

Growing up in a bi-cultural home and her positive attitude to the Māori culture had a lasting influence on Rachel's approach to teaching and coaching. Rachel played sport from a

---

<sup>7</sup> 'A marae is a fenced-in complex of carved buildings and grounds that belongs to a particular iwi (tribe), hapū (sub tribe) or whānau (family)'. Retrieved from <https://www.newzealand.com/in/feature/marae-maori-meeting-grounds/>

<sup>8</sup> Traditional Māori ball game. Retrieved from <http://maoridictionary.co.nz>

very young age. She remembered playing rugby since she was eight years old, and being the only girl in the team, saying that: “Dad wanted me to play rugby, and my brother played rugby too, so I think it was a family thing”. She recalled playing all sorts of sport from basketball, which she played every year since she was in primary school, to netball, rugby, and cricket.

Sport was always a big part of Rachel’s life with her progressing from athlete to coach naturally in her senior year of high school. However, she never thought of becoming a PE teacher in the future. It was during a PE class in her year twelve that she started to consider that as something possible:

I was in year 12, and we had a trainee PE teacher, so a student-teacher... he was taking us for PE, and he was getting observed by a lecturer, they used to come in and do visits and... that day he got me to write on the board and run the class, I guess trying to be student-centred... I did that, and the lecturer said to me afterwards that I should consider being a PE teacher... So, I guess that was the starting point for me... I kind of floated the idea, and my mom and dad were like sweet, my friends were like cool, it was all just like yeah, you should do that.

When Rachel got to University, she was very excited about studying, being away from home and becoming independent. She recalled how her experiences during University, especially during the placements in different schools, helped her realise what type of school she wanted to work with:

I had five placements in total over four years. The first year we had to do a placement in a primary school... It was good, but I realise I don’t want to teach little kids... But some people in our year were like ‘I loved that! I’m going to change to primary

teaching!’... The second year was a rural placement, so we had to go to a small school. I got placed in a school at the bottom of the South Island, lived there for four weeks, and that was a very cool, totally different environment. In my third year, I went to a high decile school. I was really lucky with the associates that I got, that was really cool, and I learnt a lot. And then in my fourth year, my first placement was at another high decile school, very organised and focused on results, that was a great school to work with, and I had some really good feedback. And then my final placement was at a decile 2 school, so a low socioeconomic school. Working there I realised that I wanted to work at low decile schools.

Rachel also mentioned learning about some GBAs such as TGfU and Game Sense, but by the time of the study, she only had a vague idea about them and she couldn’t exactly remember what she had learnt. What she vividly recalled was learning about being a culturally responsive teacher, and letting the students have more input in their learning and be able to express their culture. That clicked with her personal experiences of not being able to voice her culture as part of her learning:

I actually reconnected with my culture since I left high school, and since I went to University, and also since I came to this school. So, it’s kind of personal too; even I am learning about my culture so if I don’t value that... I don’t want my kids to feel like me basically, when they finish high school, I want them to know that their culture is important. By the Treaty of Waitangi, we need to be bicultural in our approach. I wanted to make the use of the culture organic, like, natural. I do not want it to be fake.

Rachel understood that she wanted to become more than just someone who passes on knowledge and assesses students:

I think it came down to how I want to relate with the students and impact their learning outcome... I think I can have more impact in a lower decile school. I can contribute more in a school like this, you know, it's more of a pastoral kind of role, looking after students and their well-being, which appeals to me more than, I guess a high decile school, I don't know... I think of it more of a caring role than just teaching. How do I help them learn skills that will help them in life? Not just passing assessments.

She was lucky to get a job straight after completing University, as she started teaching at Laguna College, one of the schools she completed her placement in. It was a low decile school, which was what she wanted, and by the time of the study, she had been teaching there for three years. She described the environment of the school as being "very diverse", and she recognised that her teaching approach was, in a certain way, shaped by the needs of the school population:

There are a lot of different ethnic groups, a high population of Māori and Pasifika... It is a culturally inclusive and diverse school. I would not use the approach and style that I use with these students in a higher decile school.

At Laguna College, the department of Health and Physical education was directed by the concept of Hauora which is a Māori philosophy of well-being. It included four dimensions: taha wairua (spiritual well-being), taha hinengaro (mental and emotional well-being), taha tinana (physical well-being), and taha whanau (social well-being). One of the focal points of

this concept was to develop through Physical Education a sense of belonging and meaning-making, as well as reflective thoughts and actions.

Driven by this philosophy and because the New Zealand curriculum emphasised the need to be bicultural, Rachel always included her students in the decision making process during her classes. She adopted a student-centred approach when teaching, and all the learning opportunities she created had the objective of generating understanding of a concept or the “kaupapa” for a specific class:

I think...It's important to emphasise that I'm not the expert, and I'm learning as well, and what they bring to the classroom I might not know, and I'm interested in that, and I am learning with them too, and they have something to offer, and I value what they're bringing to the classroom. So, we pretty much work around our 'Kaupapa' together.

However, Rachel also saw her teaching style being different at low decile school compared to a higher decile school. She perceived her teaching in a low decile school to be more relaxed and more understanding of her students' problems outside of school. She became more aware of how the students' personal lives had a big impact on their behaviour during classes and how committed they were to learn:

When students are perhaps late to my class or in the incorrect uniform, there might be something going on outside of the classroom. I am more considerate of that because I don't know what's happening in their lives. I think my style is more laid-back and accepting that these students might not actually care about being at school, and they don't want to be here, so I've kind of need to nurture them and make them see the value

of it... Whether in a higher decile school the expectations are the same, but the circumstances may be different.

Rachel reflected on the way she teaches, and she realised that her experiences as a student and the fact that she “had to leave your culture at the gate”, had some influence on why she wanted to be a teacher:

...that sparked this want to, I guess to be a better educator and not perpetuate that happening, so try and break it down. And as an adult, I realised that as a child it was really sad that I didn’t have the opportunity to embrace my culture and had to leave half of me outside of the school.

She said she is “very big on being culturally responsive and relational in how I teach. Every student has something to offer, and they have something to bring, and I appreciate their culture, their language, and their history”. She described her teaching style as being:

It’s student-centred, it’s innovative, it’s culturally responsive, and it’s very relational. It’s not I’m the expert, and I know everything, and I’m the boss, it’s Hey! What can I learn from my students today? What are they bringing to the classroom?, What experiences they have? Can I improve their leadership skills or what are their strengths and how do I play with that?... It’s like, this is the outcome how do you want to get there or like what do you need to do to get here.

Rachel also realised that what she learnt at University aligned with her beliefs about teaching and being culturally aware:

And then we had a great degree when I was at University. We learnt how to be culturally responsive, and I was like... all fell into place and click to me. Students need to know that they are valued and they have something to bring.

Like several other participants in this study, Rachel's beliefs about coaching were very different from her beliefs about teaching. Likely drawing on De Bono's (2017) notion of six coloured thinking hats as metaphors for different perspectives, she referred to putting on different teaching and coaching hats to emphasise the differences between the approaches she adopts:

I think that's a different hat. When I put my teaching hat on, that's pastoral, that's caring, that's nurturing because they might not want to be there... they don't think they can succeed, so you need to support them way more... it's co-constructing, it's empowering them. But yeah coaching... Coaching hat on is so different is like, you are here to play sport, I'm the person that gives you the knowledge, you need to learn a skill... Cool, you learned a skill, we've won the game, see you later, see you next week.

She also emphasised the competitive nature of sport where achieving good results was very important but was not as crucial in PE. Like Mark, she expressed how different the end result and the expectations in teaching PE and coaching are for her:

When coaching they want to win games and that is the focal point. They need to get better, so I will coach them to obtain good results, so my expectations are fairly high. Teaching is the opposite because I want to empower the students to take ownership of

their own learning. It's different because sometimes they don't want to be in class, so I can't treat them like they want to be there, like they want to learn. I want them to feel like they want to learn and can learn.

Like Mark, she also associated teacher-centred pedagogy in PE with personal and social development and coach-centred pedagogy with performance. As an athlete, even though Rachel didn't always agree with her coaches' ideas, she would still do what she was told because she believed that the coaches should be in charge due to their superior knowledge and experience. As a coach, Rachel expressed similar ideas and for her, players shouldn't spontaneously express opinions during practice as she said that "the only time I feel like the players should talk and give input is when I ask them a question". She also explained how her coaching style varies according to the gender she is coaching, and how she prefers coaching boys because she can be more direct:

Girls just have a lot of feelings, and I think they're very emotional and they get emotionally invested in something and from my experience... they want to talk a lot, and this is just what I think, so yeah, for them it was all about like... ohh great... Trying like praising them at every opportunity... 'You've done really well!', and give them constructive feedback that doesn't upset them, or make them feel that I don't value them... But they picked up drills really fast. So that's my approach with the females that I coach. With boys, well... They're not sensitive; you can say 'that was shit' or like, you know, 'that was terrible, you just missed your layup, sorted out', and they're like oh yeah, okay. And it's not like, I have to look after you and care for you... I really enjoyed coaching boys better than girls. With boys, I could be honest. It was like, almost



ruthless, ‘that sucked! You need to do this...’, whereas the girls it’s like, ‘I love how hard you were trying but next time think about this’.

This preference for coaching boys reinforces her preference for a traditional coaching approach that can be described as a command teaching style (Mosston & Ashworth, 2002). GBA can also be seen as aligning with feminist pedagogy which contrasts with the more masculinist traditional coaching approaches (Light, Kentel, Kehler & Atkinson, 2010). The disparity between teaching and coaching was accentuated when Rachel talked about how as a teacher she tries to evolve as a professional and where she searches for more information and knowledge:

I guess... Teaching hat when I don’t know something, if I say to my colleagues I do not know how to do this, and they know more than I do, we would discuss about it, but if they say they don’t know either, then I would look for workshops to go to. So, I would go to improve my knowledge so that I can bring it back here. But coaching hat... How would I improve? I don’t know. What would I do? What if a kid comes to me and says, ‘miss or coach, how do I shoot three-pointers better?’ or he says something that I don’t know how to coach, I don’t know where I would find that information.

Rachel clearly considered herself as the sole bearer of knowledge that she transfers to her players when coaching. However, on the other hand, she saw herself as a teacher who draws on a great number of resources in an approach that “embodies a holistic approach”.

## 9.1 Summary

Like Mark, Rachel didn't have the opportunity, while growing up, to be closer to her cultural roots. Nonetheless, the Māori culture was very important to her and formed a significant influence on the development of her PE teaching. Playing sport is very important in Māori culture and the opportunity to try a wide range of different sports seemed to have kept her connected to her culture. However, as a student, Rachel felt that she hadn't been allowed to express her culture at school and seems to have sparked an ambition to become a teacher. When she became a Physical Education teacher, the frustration of not being closer to her roots, and the restraints she experienced during her childhood, had a profound impact on her teaching approach, making her become a teacher much more aware of the importance of her students as individuals and their culture. Her negative experiences as a student seem to have influenced her inclination toward a student-centred approach from an early age. She wanted to give voice to her students and make them active learners.

Rachel's beliefs about teaching were rooted in her childhood and reinforced during tertiary education, as she related what she was learning to her own experiences. She learned to be culturally responsive and to want students to have something to bring to the classes and be part of the learning and decision-making process. That clicked with her less positive experiences and how she wanted to be able to change that for future generations by creating an environment where culture and subject could work together. After University, her beliefs in a student-centred approach seemed to become stronger, and she appeared to be confident about how she wanted to be as a teacher. The strengthening of her belief in student-centred and inquiry-based teaching was facilitated by her experiences of teaching at a culturally diverse school. Its vision resonated with her beliefs and encouraged her to critically analyse her teaching: "this school makes me think critically about my role in the school".

As was the case with Mark, there was a stark contradiction between Rachel beliefs about coaching and teaching. She saw the coach as being the expert who instructed players and who held all the power:

Their role is to literally teach their players how to play their game, how to play a sport. So, when I coach basketball I would teach skills, gameplay, strategies, whatever else, defence and offence, and I have all the knowledge, so they come to me to be taught something... that's how I see, to learn skills and to be better at something.

She failed to see an educational dimension in coaching, seeing sport as a way of improving skills. Nor did she connect her experiences as an athlete with her experiences as a student, appearing to be unable to see any similarities between her coaching and teaching. She saw sport as being results focused and PE as being concerned with all-round human development. She said:

All I can say about is that sport prepares students for competition and elite levels of their chosen code, PE does not. PE would only contribute to this vision by giving the students the capability to lead and communicate effectively, which they may choose to use in their own sporting careers.

## 10. David

**“My University experiences and my early experiences of coaching have certainly shaped the way I coach and teach”**

David was originally from South Wales, in the United Kingdom where he completed all his studies up to secondary school in his home town. At the age of eighteen, he moved to England where he did a three-year degree in PE and Sports Science at Loughborough University. His background in sport started from a young age playing with his friends in the playground, with football being his first passion, as he used to spend hours and hours playing football and cricket. He used to live in the countryside, and it wasn't easy to get to training sessions, so most of the games he played were not coached and had no structure. Outside school, he didn't enter structured coaching until playing in an under 14 age group at the age of twelve or thirteen years old:

I didn't start playing organised sport until late, but I played a lot of games... I started playing mainly football, a little bit of cricket and athletics in school. I played age group football to a regional level and then moved across from football to rugby, and then in England where I studied in Loughborough University, I continued, up to semi-professional level rugby in my 20s so, yeah...

Although David's mother and father were not so keen on sport, and he didn't have any older brothers and sisters, he was brought up in a tradition of rugby as a dominant cultural practice in Wales. He noted how Wales used to lead in the world in terms of how they played the game, and how they played with real flair and tactical appreciation, “I guess because of that

I got more heavily involved with rugby”. From a young age, he had aspirations to become a professional player, whether that would be football or rugby, but when David was about fifteen years old, he felt that was a good option to have a backup plan and becoming a PE teacher was the backup. In Wales, “if you wanted to be a PE teacher at that time, the range of sports was very narrow, and if you couldn’t teach or coach rugby you pretty much didn’t get a job, so that’s how important the game was within my country”. When David entered University, he had Rod Thorpe, one of the founders of Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU), as one of his lecturers. Rod changed the way David used to look at coaching and teaching by encouraging him to think critically about the traditional approach to coaching and teaching games, and develop tactical understanding and motivation through coaching games. It was something that he was actively encouraged to do, and he recognised that “it did influence my coaching”:

...probably the key way that he got me thinking about that... is when you look to a game and you look to some of the best tries, the best scoring plays, and you compare that to the correct technical model, and you see some of the best plays in that sport, they don’t even look similar so, how you get to an objective or goal it doesn’t always require the absolute correct technique... Is how... Is your ability to make decisions under pressure are probably more important. Yeah, the technical model is less important in the invasion games, in particular, so yeah, that’s probably the key thing I’ve learned from him. It’s more the ‘how to’ not the ‘this is what you do’.

David saw all his experiences at the University as being very positive and had a significant impact on his way of thinking about how to coach and teach games. He recalled two of his placements in schools that very much fostered a game-based approach, through the use of questioning. His memories were that they were two quite different schools, one was a Key

Stage 3<sup>9</sup>, it had only students between eleven and fourteen years old, and the other one was in Nottingham, a secondary, much bigger school, with students ranging from eleven years old up to eighteen years old. They were two good schools to work at that were close to the University. David remembered some struggles he had when trying to implement a student-centred approach at placements, and how important was the reflection process after those sessions:

I'll never forget one lesson in particular where I was just trying to achieve too much. The context and your group are really important, who you're trying to teach or coach, and I had a quite limited group who had some characters in there that were really keen to play up if given the opportunity... I had a fantastic lecturer after that where we reflected on that lesson that went particularly badly, and I actually thought that I might have failed the course based on that lesson... We reflected on the importance of preparing the sessions really... Reflecting on your growth and just picking one or two, maximum, sort of objectives of a lower-level depending on your growth and making it achievable. So there, I've realised that I probably moved away from a game-based approach... There was too much downtime, too many explanations where I could've been right into a game, sometimes stop the game, they were intrinsically having fun...I would've had that catch activity earlier.

After his time at University, David got his first job as a PE teacher in South Wales. He taught there for two and a half years, but he always dreamed of going to work overseas, and seeing a bit of the world. David thought that with the popularity of rugby in New Zealand, and the fact that he already had some family contacts there, it was possible to go and teach in New Zealand, and also develop his ability as a rugby coach. He came to New Zealand about fifteen

---

<sup>9</sup> Key Stage 3 normally covers pupils during their first three years of secondary education. (England National Curriculum)

years ago, at the age of twenty-five, and from that time, he has taught PE and worked his way up to rugby age groups, starting from under 14, working with A teams, Canterbury representative age group teams, and also some senior Division I teams. In conversation, David acknowledged that his first few years as a PE teacher and a coach, and his time at University were crucial and influenced his teaching and coaching style:

My Welsh background hasn't influenced my coaching, but my memories about my childhood... Of playing, having fun, making these decisions in the game, the faster the game, the faster the decision you have to make... And just that intrinsic enjoyment... As I got probably to the University level, I started to reflect on. I can say that my University experiences and my early experiences of coaching have certainly shaped the way I coach and teach.

At the time of the study, David had been teaching and coaching for many years and described his way of teaching and coaching games as being an “empowerment approach”. He tried to encourage and include the players in the session and some of the decision-making, emphasising not only the development of leadership within the groups that he coaches but also developing a tactical understanding and appreciation of how they're trying to play the game:

I do expect players to reflect on their learning, and to be responsive in that respect. I think most of my sessions would start off, whether it be a lesson or a sports session, would start with a really good warm-up. Sometimes I would go straight into a game as opposed to work on some technical aspect of the game. I often think that a good model of a lesson or a coaching session is warm-up into a game related to the theme you're working on, coming out of that game after identifying some technical areas that need

development, and then going back into the game, yeah, maybe doing that again if the time allows, so yeah. I always try to finish my session with a recap getting as much out of the players as I can...

His approach to teaching and coaching games had features of GBAs and, in particular, with the Games Concept approach (see, Aguiar & Light, 2015), where the sessions followed a model to improve not only tactical awareness but also technical elements. However, during the interviews, David said that he wanted to help his players to develop “tactical appreciation” more than skill, and how its development was important in higher competitive stages. He not only seemed to see the benefits of GBAs for elite level players but also showed an inclination to a much less structured approach, such as Game Sense (GS) (see, Light, 2013):

...let them achieve, let them play the game... in my own coaching, I want to try to foster that... Focus more on the perception and the decision-making than the actual skill development with the teams that I work with, and that tactical appreciation because I think that’s the hardest part of sport in terms of coaching, so I am really interested in taking that next level really... Working with some talented teams whether be football, rugby, athletics or other sports, where we can really focus on that tactical appreciation side...

Over his career, David tried to implement an athlete/student-centred approach to his sessions and put into practice what he has learnt at University with Rod Thorpe, and during his placements. He truly believed that a teaching and a coaching style that empowers the learner was something that was very important to the development of students and athletes, and it was missing when introducing invasion-games:



How many hours have we spent practising the perfect pass in rugby, for example? ...

The perfect pass; the perfect line-out... How many games do you see that don't even look like that? It looks completely different because the perception and the decision made at the time gives them something different...

David wanted his players to understand the game to a point where they could be empowered to anticipate and be prepared to react in any situation:

...focus more on the decision-making, which is often neglected in the invasion type of games, it's not the application of a skill or how you do the skill, it's your perception of the environment around you before you make a decision to produce an action or the skill...

He felt that adopting a student/athlete-centred approach could "increase tactical understanding from the players, increase engagement and better ability to make decisions". He also seemed to understand that to achieve that time was not only an important aspect but could also be seen as an asset:

Being able to transfer the knowledge they have learned to the game would be probably the main thing but that would take time, so I think the game-based approach is more of a long-term approach rather than this is how we are going to win on Saturday, and that could be the challenge to it, I think.

Despite his knowledge of and disposition toward GBAs and a student/athlete-centred approach, and all his efforts to be true to his beliefs about empowering students and athletes,

promoting decision-making and understanding of the game, David recognised that during his professional development, there were situations and learning experiences that contradicted his beliefs. These involved being exposed to different perspectives that emphasised a teacher/coach-centred approach, much more focused on skill development:

...probably the more sessions I've been on, and the more professional development opportunities I've taken up... initially I probably had more of a game sense focus, but what I find is a lot of the coaching sessions and coaching courses you've gone to, they tend to break the game down a lot, and look at certain areas of the game, key components of a game, and often, that's often through more of a technical, breaking the skills down, so it becomes more skill learning.

Here, David identified how he had some ups-and-downs during the process of keeping a student/athlete "empowerment approach" as he referred before, and "had to really work on keeping the focus of developing Game Sense in terms of the coaching approach that I use". But, he also mentioned that he went to a keynote address at an international conference on Game Sense two years before the study that reminded him of his beliefs and stimulated him to refocus. He found it very refreshing "where the Fiji national coach came in and gave a great presentation on utilising Game Sense in rugby coaching, and I really identified with that, and it probably made me reflect that I've probably moved away from it at times". In particular, the effective use of GBA coaching at international level in rugby encouraged him to believe that it worked across a range of coaching, from young children to rugby at the highest professional level:

Probably the biggest thing... It was probably the first time that I've seen an international coach utilizing that approach consistently through their own coaching, so

yeah, that just raised awareness of how you can manipulate games and create opportunities to develop that understanding and engagement with the players. I think his presentation encouraged me to keep using that way of coaching yeah, absolutely. I took quite a lot out of that session, and it was probably a little bit of refresher as well...

## **10.1 Summary**

David was the only participant that wasn't originally from New Zealand, and he was also the only one that completed his studies and had experiences of coaching and teaching outside of New Zealand. His childhood experiences of playing unstructured games appeared to be similar to Mark's and Rachel's experiences, with these early experiences of free play seeming to be a common thread through all stories. However, the outcomes appeared to differ especially regarding their coaching beliefs and approaches. He had a late and relatively short introduction to structured sport coaching, after extensive experience of unstructured play as a child, young man and at the University. His early experiences seem to have a lasting influence on his positive disposition toward GBA.

Like Mark and Rachel, what David learnt at University fitted in with his childhood experiences, and in David's case, having Rod Thorpe as his lecturer made a powerful contribution toward linking his early beliefs about sport and his enjoyment of informal games as a child with TGfU pedagogy for PE and sport coaching. Rod Thorpe actively encouraged him to look at traditional coaching and teaching approaches in a critical way and to develop a tactical understanding of games. This clicked with his early experiences as a child but challenged what David knew from his experiences of formal coaching from the age of thirteen. After University he was convinced of the value of TGfU for teaching and coaching. While Mark and Rachel didn't seem to have been exposed to the benefits of GBA for improving athlete performance as David had.

After graduating and having a two-and-a-half-year teaching and coaching experience in South Wales, David realised how important his experiences during University and early experiences of coaching were, and how they “have shaped the way I coach and teach”. David actively tried to keep a student/athlete-centred approach encouraging his students and players, including them in the decision-making process during the sessions. His main goal was to help them develop a tactical understanding and appreciation of the game. David recognised that, during his professional development, his approach fluctuated between a student/athlete-centred approach and a teacher/coach-centred approach. He also realised that most of the learning opportunities through coaching courses in New Zealand emphasised skill development where the coach was in command. His attendance at an international Game Sense conference two years prior to the study had reconnected him with his beliefs about coaching before migrating to New Zealand and had stimulated a renewed motivation to take a player centred approach.

## 11. Christina

**“What I’ve learnt at University was really eye opening and kind of put into perspective all the things I used to do and the games I used to play”**

Christina was born and raised in New Zealand and enjoyed spending time with her family who had a big impact on her relationship with sport. She was the youngest of five siblings, with three older brothers and one older sister, and she recalled being “right into sports”, from a very young age:

...my parents have always been big sports fanatics, and being the youngest of five, when I was younger, I always had to go along with my brothers, so I watched them play rugby... I would get bored, so I decided to play with a ball and try to be like them because that was the cool thing, you know, they were bigger than me, cooler than me so, definitely had to be my brothers who got me into rugby and touch... because I’ve watched them. But it was definitely my mom who got me into netball because she used to play netball and, always coached my teams... my family is just the typical New Zealand, Kiwis sports fanatics. And yeah, they just kind of got me involved in sports. I think the first sport I played was rugby, so I followed my brothers... I was so tiny I cannot even remember the age, probably six or seven. After that I got into netball, I think it was when netball was available at school for my age group and of course because of my mom. I just kept playing every single sport... I’ve done touch rugby, surfing before high school, I did basketball, so yeah, as long as I can remember I’ve always played sports.

Her primary sport was always netball in which she had her mother as a coach since primary school until netball started to become more serious for her, during high school. She said:

She (Christina's mother) wanted to leave it to someone with a different type of coaching. I think she wanted me to learn from other coaches which is good, but I still ask her opinion about how I play because that's what she was always like throughout and her opinion means a lot to me.

Christina became an elite netball player, making the under 15s, 16s, 17s, 19s and 21s representative teams. She grew up in a competitive environment, and that made her very competitive in all the sports she played, finding it hard to play any sport socially:

I am a really competitive person, probably because... having three older brothers, I used to play with them at home, and they were always teasing me, so that kind of built me up to be the competitive person I am. I like to be good at what I do, I don't like to be social... I mean, I can play social sport, but I just find it really hard. Always wanted to play competitively, found it really hard when someone didn't go hard...

Through the years, Christina had always worked to become a very good netball player, and she knew that eventually, she would become a netball coach one day, but she never thought about becoming a PE teacher. Only very late in her academic studies, she realised she wanted to teach:

I cannot remember the exact moment but, I think I was in year 13 at school, and I was in one of the theoretical classes, and one of my teachers... we were learning about human anatomy, and I really liked the subject, but I didn't understand something, I just couldn't figure it out... I do remember getting confused about something, and I remember the teacher coming over and spent like 10/15 minutes just with me, and I got the feeling of, 'Oh my God I understand it now!', you know, that feeling... everything clicked, and I remember that I was able to put in an essay or something and get a good grade... she helped me so much... I think it was the feeling of someone helping me that made me want to do the same for someone else, especially because I loved that subject, so that's probably when I decided to become a PE teacher.

Christina enjoyed very much her time at University and recognised that her experiences during her teacher education course were "really eye-opening". She learnt new ways of teaching and coaching that she had not been familiar with, such as Teaching Games for Understanding and Game Sense. Christina felt that what she learnt during those years "kind of put into perspective all of the things that I used to do, the games I used to play, and how some of them were actually related to Teaching Games for Understanding". Like David, her experiences of TGfU linked to her enjoyable experiences of informal and unstructured gameplay as a child. During her time at University, she understood how game-based approaches could be beneficial, and how learning about inquiry was so important for her to become a facilitator rather than just a teacher:

... You want to be there to guide rather than to instruct and to decide... You want to be there to guide and help the students' learning outcomes. So, we learnt a lot of things around that.... We learnt some strategies such as inquiry... I remember that we had, I

think it was seven methods that you could use to teach that would go from an authoritative all the way through to an inquiry type of teaching.

When telling me her story, Christina related her experiences as a child to the theory she learnt about student-centred and inquiry-based teaching at University that can be related to Dewey's (1933) notions of "learning by doing". She reflected on her exposure to student/athlete-centred approaches to teaching and coaching to emphasise the importance of that knowledge to become a successful teacher. However, she believed that her practical experiences during her school placements were more important for finding herself as a teacher:

During placements it's a real-life experience. I think you take more out of the placements... it's where you get your teaching experience and where you get to know yourself as a teacher and what type of teacher you are. So, placements for me were the most important thing, but I wouldn't be a successful teacher if I didn't have that knowledge... I would not have realised the importance of all the different strategies and approaches or made the connection between them and my practice if I hadn't learnt about them previously... the theory he helped me make the connection with the placements. To be honest, it was more on my third and fourth year that I realised about that connection because my first year was more of an experiment.

Christina was able to remember each placement in detail, how different they were, and the evolution of her teaching style. The first placement she had was in a primary school, and she thought it was a perfect start for her because at that time she was only nineteen and she was fearful of teaching at high school level:



It was really cool to kind of go back to primary. It kind of took me back to my own primary school games, and I realise that the kids could just go out and run on the field and play tag for the whole lesson. To be honest, I don't even think I had a teaching style at that time, I was just kind of getting into it. I had a lesson plan that was structured, and I used to follow that... My teaching style at that stage was teach- play a small game –teach and then play a small game again... I have to say that in those lessons I was more in control... It was probably more 'This is what we're doing!' I remember using some questioning, but I realised after learning about inquiry that I didn't really understand how to use inquiry.

Her second placement was in a rural area with juniors up to year 10. Christina felt that here she learnt a lot about how different students could be, and how to meet their needs through her lesson plans. All her students were from farms, and they didn't "bring any shoes to the classes because they loved being outside in bare feet, so every game we played was outside, very simple, and it was new and fun for them... They were so engaged, and I loved it". Christina's third placement was at a high school, and she described that placement as "definitely eye-opening":

It was the first time I taught year 11 and 12, and it was in a school where there were students from a high economic background and students from a lower economic background... So here I learnt a little bit more about how to understand students as individuals. It was probably here that what we've learnt at University about relationships and the importance of creating relationships with your students came to me.

She described all her experiences during University, classes and placements, as being very rich, but she thought that it would be virtually impossible to remember every single thing she had learnt. Yet, she emphasised the importance of understanding and being able to adopt an inquiry-based approach in her practice. She said that at University she learnt so much that “only the most important things or the things that you relate with would stay on top of your head, in my case was the inquiry teaching and Teaching Games for Understanding, those were the most important ones”.

After Christina graduated from University, she was appointed to Laguna College, a culturally diverse, low decile public school where most of the students needed more support and guidance than she had expected. In this context, she quickly understood that she had to become a facilitator, guiding and supporting her students’ learning instead of being a director of learning. She felt that her experience in this school had a powerful effect on her teaching style, as now, she aims of helping her students to succeed in her classes and in life beyond the classroom:

... I see myself as being an inquiry teacher, and I want to pass on inquiry learning to the students... for example ‘This is the Kaupapa for the day, and this is the content, how are we going to learn it? Is it through questions, through exploring and engaging in conversations, research...’ I want my students to have control of their learning... I think when they get older, I will not be their teacher, and they will have to be in control of their own learning, so I need to give them the skills that can help them to foster their own learning... I want them to be able to reflect on a game that we just played and realise how that links to what we are learning. I don’t want to feed them. I want them to go out and find it themselves... That is key for me... that is what is going to get them

through life... If they can just reflect on PE, then they will be able to use it in other areas.

Her beliefs about teaching centred on preparing students for life and giving them tools to be independent thinkers. It was very clearly a student-centred, inquiry-based approach of TGfU and Game Sense (Light, 2013). Her ultimate goal was to give her students control of their learning by adopting a “backseat position” during her classes:

I think in my teaching, the inquiry process is big, asking questions, what students want to do, how are they going to achieve what they want to learn, how are they going to apply it in the game...how are they going to learn is my focus, and it's not by me standing in the front of the class telling them what to do... It's like, giving them opportunities to learn for themselves and then reflecting on it.

Despite her commitment to student-centred, inquiry-based teaching, Christina faced some challenges during her classes as a beginning teacher. She felt that there were times where she wasn't true to what she believed and was not teaching as she wanted to:

I want to be a really enthusiastic and positive teacher, and I am, however, there are days, especially with my year seven and eight classes that is really hard because they still don't have the maturity to learn by themselves, and I really want to see them learning. The first couple of weeks I was very strict trying to get them to a point where I could take that step back and encourage their own learning... I feel that with my seniors I can be the teacher I wanted to be because they are more independent... but with my juniors I'm half, half. I've probably adapted myself to all the different types

of students that exist here. Most of them have behaviour problems, and besides the curriculum, I need to manage their behaviour as well. Sometimes what to teach is secondary, the priority is to create an environment that fosters their own learning, where they feel welcomed and where they can interact with each other.

Most of Christina's students were also Pasifika, which meant that she had to make sure they understood what she wanted from them and what the goals for each class were. Before focusing on the content, she said she always tried to meet their individual needs to facilitate their learning:

In trying to make sure that they understand, I give them a little bit more of one on one time. I want to make sure that they understand so they know what to do. The fact that I'm not Pasifika as them they might not feel comfortable to ask any questions, so I try... And I even ask them what type of language should I use in the class... And they are like.... 'Say this miss, say this!'... So I'm trying to get that going, so I can relate a little bit to them. The way I teach it is not different, it's the same for everyone, but relating to them that would be different... Making sure that I relate to them more, because I'm not part of their culture.

As an educator, Christina focused on her relationship with her students, and how she could facilitate their learning process by creating a positive and engaging environment. However, like Rachel and Mark, Christina's beliefs about coaching differ from teaching regarding her role:

When I am teaching I like to share the role with the students and get them involved in their own learning, whereas in coaching I am the person that is there to share the knowledge with them, so most of the times I tell them what to do. I also prefer to coach at a higher level because I find it really hard to modify games to a really low level. Probably because I still play, it is really hard for me to change my mind-set from a higher level to a very basic level.

Like Mark and Rachel, Christina did not think that GBA such as Game Sense and TGfU could be used to improve performance in sport and did not question the hegemony of traditional approaches to sport coaching. She recalled her own experience during primary school of being about fun and her experience at high school as being about winning and performing:

for me... Obviously I want people to enjoy what they do because I want them to do what they like for as long as they can, and that is through teaching and through sport, but for high school students I really want to emphasise the skill stuff... I don't really have the desire to coach primary because I find it hard... Like... the things that I see at a higher level, I play at a higher level, and it's really hard to simplify to the primary level. I'm working to coach at a high level, when they can start to incorporate more technique.

### **11.1 Summary**

Like Mark and Rachel, Christina recognised that her studies at University helped her find herself as a future PE teacher, and how her past experiences of playing informal and unstructured games seemed to have clicked with her experiences of learning about student/athlete-centred approaches, such as TGfU and Game Sense. Her childhood experiences

appear to have influenced her early beliefs about teaching toward a student-centred approach, that later, during her formal training, were brought up to a conscious level where she was able to reflect and make the connection between her experiences and the theoretical knowledge she obtained.

At the time of the study, Christina had been teaching for three months at Laguna College. As a young teacher, she felt challenged teaching in a school with such culturally diverse environment. However, the school setting and the students' needs helped and allowed her to be the inquiry teacher she wanted to be. In PE, she tried to prepare and give tools to her students to succeed in life and become independent thinkers, and her articulated beliefs and practice reflected a student-centred, inquiry-based approach. This suggests that despite the challenges, Laguna College setting was relevant to reinforce Christina's beliefs in a student-centred approach.

Similar to Mark and Rachel, Christina's beliefs about coaching contrasted with her beliefs about PE teaching. She believed in sharing the role with her students and get them involved in their learning when teaching. Although, when coaching, she believed she was the person in charge, being her obligation to pass on the knowledge to her athletes and tell them what to do with her "mind-set to a higher level". She saw and embraced the possibilities for learning in PE when using GBA but did not see this as being important for coaching. She was ignorant of how they can be used to improve performance at the highest levels of sport (see, Jones, 2015).

## 12. Sarah

**“Thinking about my coaching approach, I don’t know where it comes from, it’s just me”**

Sarah was born and raised in New Zealand and completed all her studies up to high school in her home town, South of Christchurch. Later, she moved to Christchurch, more than fifteen years before the study, to complete her tertiary education and to work. She had always loved sport and was involved in it from a very young age that included gymnastics, netball, athletics and played basketball. She was:

...was always involved in sport that the girls played, started with netball and I also had a background in athletics, so the next progression was having a ball on my hand, so I got introduced to basketball, I think when I was starting high school which was pretty late.

Despite her love of sport, Sarah’s academic path never crossed that area. She came to Christchurch to do accountancy and after finishing University got a job as an accountant. She had never thought that her future would involve sport or coaching. Her decision to become a coach came later in life and was mostly because of her daughters with her coaching athletics, gymnastics and basketball but with a particular interest in basketball:

I’ve coached athletics, and it came about because my daughters were involved in athletics. And I coached the little ones they’re sort of 5 to 9-year-olds and loved it. Same with gymnastics, preschool gymnastics, fantastic, and it’s only because my girls were involved in the sport, so that’s why I got involved in, but also basketball, that was

a little bit different because I wanted to give back to the community what I got out of basketball.

Sarah never got any formal education to become a coach with all her knowledge coming from her personal experiences as an athlete and what she took from her daughters' experiences:

I think, especially with athletics absolutely, is what I've been through. I had a really good coach who was my uncle; he represented New Zealand at the Olympics... I had a really good upbringing, and I saw, you know, the attributes of athletics, keeping kids out of trouble but, gymnastics that was really interesting. It was really different because I did gymnastics myself as a little person, and it wasn't hard, it was really easy, and it was interesting as a coach to see that the little ones can actually push themselves if mom or dad would let them go, and I saw that only through what my girls have gone through. I would never coach gymnastics ever before until that time, and I loved it, it was fantastic, it was incredible...

Nonetheless, as a coach, her relationship with basketball and how she started that role was slightly different to her coaching in other sports because it was the first time she coached a sport her daughters were not involved in. Instead, she got involved because of her passion for the game:

I think it was when my girls got to an age where they were like... 'what are we going to do?' And I was like, 'Okay, you don't do your sport around what I did', but I really wanted to give back, that was the big thing, I wanted to give back cause I loved my basketball, and there's so much more to give, so it was really, Ah... well, I'm sitting at



home, I was working from home at the time, but what else more can I do? Ah, let's do some basketball, something that I'm passionate about. That's how I got into coaching basketball... I loved the game and wanted to give back to basketball because it was something that I got so much from.

At the time of the study, Sarah had been coaching for ten years and told me that her journey as a coach had been emotional and not always easy. She was very proud of what her athletes accomplished even though her coaching style has been questioned a few times along the years:

It's emotional. I don't think any coach could say it wouldn't be emotional, you've got your highs, you've got your lows.... I maybe get told off because I'm too motherly sometimes and I look after my players too much. But at the end of the day, I see where some of my girls have gone, and they're doing really well, you know, some of them have gone to scholarships at the United States, they are representing New Zealand, so I think I've done all right. But, what do I get out of it, nothing, you just know that you've passed on the love of the game... That is what it is all about.

Sarah emphasised enjoyment over all other aspects of basketball as the most powerful tool to encourage learning:

... it's got to be about fun, if you don't have fun why would you play that sport, it's, you know, and I see the joy on the girls faces, you know... It's got to be fun, and then you're adding drills, and they don't realise they're learning skills at the same time as

they're having fun, and the next time you see them play, doing precisely what we've taught them it's... there are no words to describe that, it's incredible, for me it is huge.

She believed that for girls' participation in sport is vital during teenage years to keep them out of trouble:

... sport got to be fun, especially when you are a teenager, you know, at the end of the day there is so many of the things, the drugs, the alcohol and, you know, being socially accepted, you know and, playing sport is huge...

In addition to the girls having fun in Sarah's sessions she said that questioning was very important to make her players accountable for their actions and choices in the game, which, along with the importance of enjoyment, suggests a GBA oriented approach (Light, 2013):

Questioning is a big part in my sessions, absolutely. So, stop the game and ask... Why you're there? What did you do? Why did you do it?... It's making them accountable for when they've gone from offence to defence and... Were they in the right position?, What could they have done better? I love that, and you know, I think they all know, but they need to be held accountable for doing that, and it's not like I made them run suicides... No... I think they just need a couple of seconds to think about what they did.... I should've been in a better position... I should've had my hand out... if you pull them up really quickly rather than letting them go through a whole cycle, they wouldn't remember what they did; if you pull them straight away, it's like... oh yeah... I didn't do that, do it again.

Besides having fun, she wanted her athletes to become “the best players they can be”, by absorbing everything around them and to “learn from every game”. She emphasised that there were always lessons to learn and something to take from every game. “When you got beaten there’s a reason, so you’ve got to reflect on it and grow from it”. Sarah developed her approach to coaching through a combination of her own past experiences, her instincts as a mother and her view of how playing sport could help develop teenagers into responsible young adults. However, and even though she recognised that there were some important people during her journey in becoming a coach, she couldn’t identify any connection between her coaching beliefs and her past experiences:

Thinking about my coaching style, I actually don’t know where it comes from; it’s just me. I just want to give back through the sport that I love. I had some really amazing people that gave me some really good tools... I don’t know where it comes from... I coached a lot of different sport, and I never thought about where my coaching comes from. I just love seeing the most amazing joy on their faces, but it’s also the fact that... It doesn’t matter if you get any gratification... you won’t ever get remembered for it, it’s just knowing that I was able to assist an athlete or a child taking the next step and getting better.

Furthermore, during all the years Sarah has been coaching, she didn’t think that her coaching style had changed. She used to coach representative teams in Christchurch, and she was given guidelines to follow that she didn’t agree with. She decided that “I was more happy with the way I was coaching and if people didn’t like my coaching style, they wouldn’t come and play basketball”. However, this attitude to coaching was challenged by her working at St. Nicolas College, an elite independent school where basketball wasn’t one of the leading sports

and where most of the players had rugby or netball as their main sport. She quickly realised that she had to adjust her expectations according to the type of players she had:

The only change I have in mind is... and we have to be very mindful, is that I'm coaching at a school where the expectations and demand of results are really high but there are a lot of different athletes playing basketball. Some are there for competitive reasons, some are there for fun, and some are just there for social, so it's overcoming that and try to compete with other sports because once the girls realize they are doing really well, everything shifts and they actually want to do really well in basketball, and they want to win titles.

Sarah seemed to have the ability to adapt her coaching to suit a different context, as she reinforced that it was not possible to "compare a team of multisport athletes, netballers, a little bit of basketball, to Representative Teams that are purely about basketball". She knew through her experiences as a coach that "when you get to the rep teams it's obviously a lot more structured" and the workload could be overwhelming. Once again, Sarah saw this with the lens of a mother and said:

I think that the training sessions are overdone, I really feel for our basketballers nowadays, and I can understand why some parents are actually pulling their kids out of things. You've got maybe two basketball training sessions for the school, you've got the Mainland which is the Canterbury representative, and then if they get into New Zealand another bits and pieces and that's 6-7 days a week. Especially when you've got young girls, haven't gone through puberty at 15-16, that's too much. And I can say that because I've also got girls who are in the same boat, playing basketball, they're also

triathletes, they're athletes in their own right and, they have to have a day off and, it's just been very hard.

This was also one of the reasons why she wanted to keep "true to myself" in her approach. Sarah said that the way she coaches is not going to change any time soon as she revealed being happy with where she is now. She has shown some reluctance to change and evolve her coaching approach and compared that with coaching males, a gender that, in her opinion, requires more knowledge and being more physical to succeed. It looked like Sarah felt more comfortable coaching younger girls because she thought she could relate and help them:

I don't see myself coaching international teams, I see myself coaching, in the future, the young people coming through, and that can be anywhere from intermediate to secondary school, and helping to make them better people and better players... As long as they can say they got good fundamentals at the start, I'm okay with that. I don't see my coaching style changing in the future; I'm okay with where I am at the moment, coaching females. Coaching males... Yes, it would be a change... I used to coach male basketball quite a few years ago, and at that stage, I was fitter and stronger than most of them, and I used to train with them, and they understood that what I was saying was actually correct. I don't want to coach male basketball now, it's superior, and has completely different physicality and attributes, and I just don't want to coach men's basketball. I'm more than happy to coach female basketball, at least with female I've been there, I know what they're going through.

In the past, when coaching boys, Sarah used to be actively involved in the sessions and developed close relationships with her players, but at the time of the study, she was fearful that she wouldn't be able to be as involved as she wanted to. She felt that one of the main strengths of her approach was the relationships she built with her athletes that is supported by the literature on athlete-centred coaching (see, Jowett & Poczwardowski, 2007; Light, 2017), but as she couldn't relate to the boys as much as she could relate to girls, did not want to coach them.

## 12.1 Summary

Of all the participants, Sarah was the only one who didn't have any formal education in sport coaching or teacher education and had no exposure to or knowledge of GBA, with her academic studies and professional career in accountancy not related to sport in any way. Her beliefs about coaching seemed to have come mostly from her experiences of playing different sport during her childhood, driven by the passion she developed for basketball and being a mother, but her coaching resonated with GBAs. This is a fascinating situation because, despite having no exposure at all to GBAs her coaching reflected so many of the features associated with GBA such as TGfU and Game Sense and with the broader concept of athlete-centred coaching (see Pill, 2018). These include caring for athletes in and outside their sport (Jones, 2006) and emphasising enjoyment (Light, 2013) and questioning (Harvey & Light, 2015).

It seems that Sarah's coaching was most informed by her experiences of being coached and her maternal approach to coaching girls, which she described by saying that 'it's just me'. Her approach to coaching was not purely athlete-centred but had many similarities, and it seems like she was intuitively duplicating some aspects of what she had observed and experienced during her childhood. Lortie's (1975) notion of an *Apprenticeship of Observation* seems to help understand how Sarah learnt to become a coach without any formal education, and how

learning occurred through observation. For Lortie, the learning process that happens through observation “is based on individual personalities rather than pedagogical principals” (p.62), and Sarah probably identified with what she had observed. Unlike the other participants, Sarah only started coaching later in her life with her motivations to do so also being distinct from the others. She coached to help players grow in and out of the court instead of assisting them to build a career out of basketball. It seems that her role as mother/coach influenced her coaching from the beginning, and her desire to give back to the community as a prime driver for her to start coaching basketball, and which has kept her involved for more than ten years also seems to have shaped her approach to coaching.

Despite the features of her coaching that were common with GBA her approach also had elements of a more traditional approach. Fun and questioning were the most common tools used by Sarah in her coaching with questioning used to engage her players and make them accountable for their actions. She also used it for players to reflect their mistakes to ensure they learnt from them. This is promoted in the Game Sense approach (Light, 2013) but she did mix up a GBA and a traditional approach. When using questioning, she asked her players to come up with an answer, but most of the times she adopted a coach-centred approach by looking for a specific answer from them instead of using open questions aimed at promoting dialogue (Harvey & Light, 2015). On the other hand, “fun” and enjoyment were often achieved through small-sided games that Sarah used to introduce in the beginning and at the end of the practice. During my observations, I noted that she used those games more for relaxation and socialisation more than a way of learning about how to play the game.

Sarah seemed to care about her players on and off the court with her approach and demeanour suggesting that her motherly side was directing how much and often she would lean toward an athlete-centred approach or a coach-centred approach. Her coaching style might be compared to how a mother raises her children, giving love and having good, relaxed “fun”

moments together but at the same time, correcting, disciplining and directing her kids when seen to be necessary.



### **13. Narratives Discussion**

The participant's stories are very rich and suggest the complexity and diversity of factors influencing their practice and beliefs about coaching and teaching. Even though each story was unique and very personal, there were common aspects between them that seem to have greatly influenced their beliefs.

Four (Mark, Rachel, David and Christina) of the five participants experienced formal education to become PE teachers with all of their stories drawing attention to the importance of tertiary education in developing and/or enhancing their beliefs about teaching and coaching. The literature on teacher socialisation (Lawson, 1986) suggests "that teacher education courses do not effectively alter the beliefs and dispositions that recruits acquire during acculturation" (Richards, Templin, & Graber, p.118, 2014), and that "despite being exposed to innovative practices during Physical Education Teacher Education (PETE), recruits revert to traditional methodologies when they begin teaching" (See Stroot & Ko, 2006). The stories of the five participants contradict this with formal education appearing to have been crucial in shaping their dispositions and beliefs toward a student-centred approach. Although, there was a stark contradiction between Mark, Rachel and Christina's beliefs about coaching which were coach-centred.

David did not present contradictory views on teaching and coaching and was the only participant whose teacher education took place outside New Zealand. His teacher education took place in the U.K. with the other three completing their tertiary education in the same University in New Zealand. This suggests the significant influence of their teacher education. What Mark, Rachel and Christina learnt during University may have contributed to the contradiction between their beliefs about teaching and coaching as Rachel suggests:

Physical Education and sport differ because they are different, especially in New Zealand. In PE we learn ‘in, through and about movement’ and at no point are we required to teach students how to perform skills until they reach (National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) and then only one standard each year is dedicated to performance. The way I see it is that in PE movement is just a context or vehicle that we allow our students to learn through. They're learning what some would call ‘soft skills’ during movement, such as interpersonal skills, group processes, enhancing well-being, accepting diversity, critical thinking etc... different to sport where they learn how to pass, catch or run offences. PE allows students to be themselves in movement and confident that they can manage themselves and work effectively with others. Of course, they learn this in sport, but it is implicit, not explicitly taught by coaches. A PE teacher has a responsibility to create a safe learning environment that students can feel accepted in. Sport differs because it is competitive and at times disengaging for those that are not good enough; PE is inclusive.

It seems like the disparity in Mark’s, Rachel’s and Christina’s beliefs about teaching and coaching arose from misinterpretations of the New Zealand Curriculum for Health and Physical Education (HPE) that were emphasised in their tertiary education and later on, in some of the schools they worked in. According to the Ministry of Education (1999), the Curriculum for HPE intends to promote critical thinking and “encourage student engagement in movement experiences that promote and support the development of physical skills, social skills, the acceptance of challenge, teamwork, optimism, acceptance of diversity and decision making” (Culpan, 2005, p.6). It also “specifies a strong relationship between physical education and sport” with sport having “significant educative value, and if one looks at the spectrum of sport

and moves beyond mere sport performance, then the study of sport has particular relevance for physical education” (Culpan, 2005, p.10).

However, despite the relationship between PE and Sport identified by the Curriculum, “there is a danger that physical education in schools can be seen as the foundation stone of sport performance for the community and country” (Culpan, 2005, p.13). This suggests that to avoid being seen as the “foundation for sport performance”, Physical Education might have been kept completely independent from Sport. This happened not only in schools but also in tertiary education when preparing future teachers, enhancing the participants’ opposite beliefs about teaching and coaching.

## **14. Core Themes**

### **14.1 Introduction**

In this section I identify the three main factors that influenced the participant's approaches and beliefs about teaching and coaching and, which emerged from the grounded theory process that followed the narrative inquiry. They are presented in chronological order to tie in with the process of NI used in the previous chapters. It presents the findings to outline how their beliefs were shaped over their lives, early on by the different cultural settings they grew up in and the childhood experiences they had (Early Experiences), and then, by the teacher education programmes they entered (The influence of Tertiary Education). At the end of the section, I also suggest how the context of the schools (School Context) they have worked in came to reinforce or challenge their beliefs about teaching and coaching.

## **15. Early Experiences**

The personal experiences and interactions of the participants over their lives greatly influenced their beliefs about teaching and coaching. This happened through a complex process of learning that was shaped by socio-cultural and institutional contexts reaching back to their childhood. Their early experiences since the beginning of primary school years until finishing secondary school generated what Bourdieu (1984) calls sets of dispositions that influenced how they interpreted later experience and shaped their beliefs about teaching and coaching in later life.

### **15.1 Sport and Schooling**

During the study, the participants regularly brought up experiences of sport participation and schooling as something that they fondly remembered. Those early years, from ages four to nine, were when they were first exposed to sport (mostly informal and unstructured sport) and seemed to have had a strong yet implicit influence on their developing beliefs about teaching and coaching. This occurred through a gradual process over their lives with the period focused in this chapter beginning from their first experiences of unstructured sport as children up to their later experiences through high school, where the influence on their beliefs and dispositions toward teaching and coaching was more noticeable. It was also this stage of their lives (during high school) that, for Mark, Rachel, Christina and David had a great impact on their decisions to become PE teachers and coaches.

Mark and Rachel revealed an early, and probably a stronger inclination toward sport due to the close relationship their cultures (Rachel being half Maori and Mark half Samoan)

had with sport. However, like Christina and David, their interest in teaching was mainly developed due to the influence of teachers and coaches who inspired them. They grew a positive inclination toward the profession through the interactions they had with their teachers and coaches who they respected, felt gratitude toward and wanted to emulate. This is shown in the literature that says that future teachers commonly describe the influence of experiences of physical education and sport, and their interactions with teachers and coaches, as a positive influence on their career choice (see for example Templin & Richards, 2014). And it was also evident in all their stories, with Mark saying that he “looked up to” some of the coaches and teachers he had, and he really “identified” with their ways of coaching and teaching as he would “love to do the same for my students and athletes” as future PE teacher and coach. And Christina’s sharing the same idea as she said that she had a teacher that:

helped me so much... I think it was the feeling of someone helping me that made me want to do the same for someone else, especially because I loved that subject, so that’s probably when I decided to become a PE teacher.

Despite having some teachers that had impact in her decision to become a PE teacher, Rachel’s dispositions toward teaching were mainly influenced by her least positive experiences of schooling as she said that she didn’t “want my kids to feel like me basically, when they finish high school, I want them to know that their culture is important”. She developed the desire of doing for her students what she felt that was lacking when she was growing up, becoming culturally responsive in her teaching and more aware of her students’ needs. The influence that negative experiences can have on recruits’ motivations to become PE teacher has been identified in the literature (Richards & Gaudreault, 2017; Stran & Curtner-Smith, 2009; Wright, 2001). It suggests that the main “goal of this group of recruits is to improve on

the type of physical education and sport they suffered through themselves or observed having a negative impact on others” (Richards & Gaudreault, 2017, p. 38).

Their childhood experiences of unstructured and structured sport and schooling not only encouraged them to think about entering formal teacher education but also seemed to influence their beliefs about physical education teaching and coaching, as they seem to relate to their coaches’ and teachers’ approaches. In occupational socialisation (Lawson, 1983) this is referred to as the acculturation phase. Acculturation is, “...the period of time where recruits learn about the profession from teachers, coaches, and other significant individuals, before entering a teacher education program” (Richards et al., 2014, p.113).

Despite the impact of early years on the desire of Mark, David, Christina and Rachel to become PE teachers and coaches, those same experiences generated, between all the participants, different outcomes in terms of their beliefs about teaching and coaching pedagogy and aims, influenced by context. Some literature on coaching identifies the influence of experience on practice with Light et al. (2015) suggesting that in sport “...experience influences practice and beliefs at a non-conscious level and is developed over long periods of time” and that “this embodied knowledge is particularly powerful because it operates at a level below consciousness as common sense” (p.53). The participants’ childhood experiences of playing unstructured games seem to be a good example of how those experiences have unconsciously shaped their early beliefs about teaching and coaching toward a student/athlete-centred approach. They could recall those experiences but couldn’t relate them to their inclination toward a student/athlete-centred approach as it just seemed common sense to them. This aligns with Light et al.’s (2015) suggestion that experience unconsciously influences practice and beliefs over time.

Whilst early experiences of unstructured sport disposed all the participants toward student/athlete-centred pedagogy, Mark’s, Rachel’s and Christina’s subsequent experiences of

schooling came to disrupt those dispositions. The contradicting views on Sport and PE that they developed later in their lives, from ages ten to eighteen, appear to have been shaped by experiences of structured sport and of sport and PE at school that disposed them toward seeing sport and PE as competing practices. This was evident in Christina's story where she said that she recalled sport in primary school being about "fun" and her experience at high school being about "winning and performing". This was also enhanced by Rachel that said that "in PE we learnt about movement" and in sport "we learnt about performance". The period over which they developed these opposing beliefs about teaching and coaching seemed to be longer than their experiences of unstructured play, and clearly more recent, which seems to explain the fact that those early dispositions didn't seem to have a lasting effect.

There was an apparent disjunction between Mark, Rachel and Christina's early experiences of games, their experiences of schooling, and later on, teacher education that saw them develop contradictory beliefs about teaching and coaching. They seem to have been socialised into this division between Sport and PE in New Zealand through sport participation and schooling during the acculturation phase (Lawson, 1983), a stage that lasted long enough to generate durable beliefs about teaching and coaching. In their study, *Influence of Acculturation and Professional Socialisation on Preservice Teachers Interpretation and Implementation of the Teaching Games for Understanding Model*, Vollmer and Curtner-Smith (2016) described sport participation and schooling as two "key elements" of acculturation that are "partially responsible for the orientations with which they entered PETE" (p. 86). This helped to understand why the beliefs in a student/athlete-centred approach that Mark, Rachel and Christina appeared to have in the early stages of their lives were overlapped by the belief in a coach-centred approach, and by a noticeable disconnection between Sport and PE. It also explains how what they experienced later on at University and in schools was enabled, to a



degree, by the experiences and dispositions they developed over childhood and in secondary school.

Sarah's experiences of sport and David's experiences of sport and schooling from a young age up until he entered University, revealed a powerful continuity of learning for developing beliefs about athlete/student-centred teaching and coaching. There were no accounts in their stories that suggest that they were exposed to opposing views about teaching and coaching at any point until later stages of their development, and in David's case until he enrolled in PETE. The idea of continuity it is instead enhanced by David's statements that show stability and growth of his dispositions and developing beliefs about teaching and coaching. He had "memories about my childhood... Of playing, having fun, making these decisions in the game, the faster the game, the faster the decision you have to make... And just that intrinsic enjoyment", that he recalled reflecting about and connecting to later on during University.

As Curry (2012) suggested, "Teachers' beliefs about learning are the result of their persona, culture and education" (p.46), with teachers gaining knowledge, not only in informal education settings as students (from the way they were taught), but also from their experiences during teacher education as well as their life experiences (Tsangaridou, 2006). This seems to apply to all the participants, even though Sarah was only a coach and didn't pursue teacher education. Like the other participants, her beliefs about coaching were shaped by her early experiences as well as her later experiences in life such as motherhood and coaching. However, contrary to Mark, Rachel and Christina, her experiences of schooling didn't seem to have influenced her motivations to become a coach nor her beliefs about coaching. But like David, she did not differentiate between PE and sport which suggests that the early experiences that disposed her toward athlete-centred approaches were enhanced by her later experiences and also her "persona".

The interrelatedness between the participants' beliefs with experience, and how their beliefs were developed over time during sport and schooling, through social interactions (with teachers and coaches) in particular settings, aligns with the views of social constructivists such as Vygotsky (1978), Bruner (1996) and Dewey (1916/97). They see learning as a process that is only possible collectively (through social interaction), with contribution of social and cultural contexts as agents that can generate change and transformation in the learning process. It also aligns with Dewey's (1938) view on continuity and how present experiences and learning are the result of interaction between accumulated past experiences with the current experience.

### **15.2 Distinct cultural context, different experiences and interactions**

Regarding the participants' experiences of sport and schooling, the cultural setting where those experiences occurred, emerged as being very relevant for understanding the differences between, or similarities to, their beliefs about teaching and coaching. Coming from a different culture to the others, David's experiences of unstructured play as a child, were similar. However, he experienced unstructured play for a much longer period of time than the other four participants and didn't seem to have experienced any tensions between Sport and PE during school or University in the U.K.. Like Rachel, Mark and Christina, David's interactions and experiences of sport and schooling stimulated his interest in becoming a PE teacher and a coach, but opposite to the other three participants, his experiences solidified his early inclinations toward a student/athlete-centred approach that later was reinforced in his PETE studies. This seems to align with Evans' (2011, 2012, 2014) study on elite level rugby coaches in New Zealand and Australia that shows how "cumulative experience embodied over time operated below the level of consciousness to exert a profound influence on coaches' beliefs about coaching and dispositions toward it" (Cited, Hassanin & Light, 2014, p.3). It suggests that contrary to Mark, Rachel and Christina, David grew up in a setting that allowed continuity

in his learning, and where the experiences he accumulated confirmed his early beliefs in a student/athlete-centred approach (Dewey, 1938). For Dewey, learning through experience requires continuity as an ongoing influence of past experience on present and future experience. He also acknowledges that continuity and interaction are two principles that are connected, and that these two principles “in their active union with each other provide the measure of the educative significance and value of an experience” (pp. 44-45).

David’s interactions and experiences in a different socio-cultural context to that of the others in the study not only reinforced his early beliefs about teaching and coaching but also provided continuity and allowed him to make sense of his experiences, enabling his beliefs to become meaningful, mature and last over his life. This is reinforced by Vygotsky’s ideas that “meaningful learning occurs only when individuals are engaged in social activity, arguing that thought evolved from both the experiences and the maturation process of the individual” (Cited, Curry, 2012, p.87). This can also explain the fact that the lack of continuity in Mark’s, Rachel’s and Christina’s experiences during early stages of development, didn’t allow their early beliefs in a student/athlete-centred approach to mature and become meaningful enough, as they were easily influenced by the opposing views they were exposed to about PE and sport.

Even though Sarah grew up in New Zealand, and the experiences and interactions that have shaped her beliefs about coaching occurred, in a certain way, in a similar cultural context, she was twenty years older than Mark, Rachel and Christina (as she was in her 50’s, and they were in their late 20’s, early 30’s), and seemed to have experienced a different era. She had not grown up under the influence of the current curriculum for PE (see chapter 2) and the tensions that appeared to have influenced the other three New Zealand born participants. Nor did Sarah have any formal education or training in coaching. Sarah’s approaches and beliefs about coaching seem to have been developed through her own experiences as an athlete and influenced by her values as a mother, as she used the expression “I don’t know where it comes

from, it's just me". This importance of experience in shaping her beliefs and approaches aligns with the literature on how coaches develop their beliefs (Cushion, 2007; Cushion et al., 2003; Light et al., 2015; Stephenson & Jowett, 2009). According to Hassanin and Light (2014, p.132), "formal coach education programmes typically fail to result in significant and lasting change in practice due to the powerful influence of beliefs and dispositions developed through extended experience as players and coaches".

Also, Dan Lortie's (1975) concept of *apprenticeship of observation* explains how new teachers' preconceptions and beliefs about teaching are related to the number of hours they spent as students observing their teachers and how they teach, and how what they have seen during all those years, generates an "intuitive and imitative" (Lortie, 1975, p.62) behaviour. Despite the fact that his work was conducted on teachers, his views on *apprenticeship of observation* help understand how Sarah learnt to become a coach without any formal education. As Lortie (1975) described, the learning process that occurs via observation "is based on individual personalities rather than pedagogical principals" (p.62), and Sarah probably identified herself with what she had observed.

It seems to have been due to her past experiences of sport, and own experiences as a mother that Sarah adopted a more humanistic approach in her practice which aligned with her beliefs in an athlete-centred approach. This idea was evident in her story as she said that her knowledge came from "what I've been through. I had a really good coach who was my uncle... I had a really good upbringing, and I saw, you know, the attributes of athletics, keeping kids out of trouble".

How the participants developed their early beliefs about teaching and coaching, and what they learnt about Sport and PE during acculturation phase seem to have been particularly shaped by the interactions they had in specific cultural settings. Those settings contextualised their experiences and influenced how they were socialised into Sport and PE. As the literature

suggests, culture is “produced, expressed, learned and reproduced through participation in cultural practices” (Hassanin, Light & Macfarlane, 2018, p.3), and is not possible to separate culture from the individual with Bruner (1996) referring to culture as being “superorganic”. For him, the individual generates meaning from experiences but “although meanings are ‘in the mind’, they have their origins and their significance in the culture in which they are created” (p.3), for that reason, “learning and thinking are always situated in a cultural setting” (p.4). Despite being conceptualised in broad social fields such as Sport or Education, Bourdieu’s work on how culture is reproduced through practice also helps to explain how the participation in different settings, during early stages of the participants’ experiences of sport and schooling, shaped their practice and beliefs in different ways over time.

### **15. 3 Summary**

This theme suggests that the participants’ early experiences and learning developed sets of dispositions that shaped their beliefs about teaching and coaching later in life. What they experienced, and the nature of their interactions in particular contexts, such as school, significantly contributed to shaping their beliefs about teaching and coaching. It highlights the complexity of factors influencing the participants’ beliefs about teaching and coaching at an individual level from an early age, and how they are constructs of social interactions and experiences in particular cultural contexts. It suggests that distinct experiences and interactions the participants had over acculturation phase have shaped their beliefs, sometimes in different directions and were influenced by earlier experiences of sport and informal games.

The interactions they had, and the specific contexts they occurred in, seemed to have acted as important agents in the development of their early beliefs about coaching and teaching, revealing to be central in their learning process. This aligns with socio-cultural constructivism

views on learning and how they see these elements (interaction and context) as capable of generating change and transformation.

This theme also acknowledges the importance of continuity in generating lasting beliefs about teaching and coaching, and how past experiences interact with present and future experiences (Dewey, 1938). This was most noticeable in David's and Sarah's stories where their childhood experiences affected and connected with their later experiences, which enabled them to maintain and enhance their early beliefs in a student/athlete-centred approach. *Au contraire*, there was little continuity for Mark, Rachel and Christina, with their early experiences disconnected from their high school experiences and their PETE programmes, which reflected in contradictions in their beliefs about sport and PE pedagogy.

Early experiences of schooling and sport revealed to be the base for the participants' development of their dispositions and beliefs about teaching and coaching. However, the influence these two elements had upon the participants' experiences and consequently on their beliefs, later on, depended on the relationship between continuity, interaction and cultural setting.

## **16. The influence of Tertiary Education**

The literature on teacher development suggests that the influence of Teacher Education on teachers' long-term practice and beliefs is limited (see for example, Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005; Curtner-Smith, 1999; Dewar, 1989; Doolittle & Schwager, 1989; Lawson, 1986; Placek, 1983; Richards et al. 2014; Stran & Curtner-Smith, 2009; Zeichner & Gore, 1990). However, in this study, formal training proved to have been central to the participants' development of beliefs about teaching and coaching with a lasting effect reflected in their practice. For them, professional socialisation, the second phase in Lawson's (1983) and Templin and Schempp's (1989) notion of teacher socialisation in PE, seems to have been the most influential (in shaping the participants' beliefs about teaching and coaching collective sports) during the later years of the acculturation phase. As highlighted in chapter 11 (Narratives Discussion), this contradicts what is suggested in much of the literature on PE teacher socialisation (see for example, Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005; Curtner-Smith, 1997; 1999; Graber, 2001; Lawson, 1983; 1986; Pike & Fletcher, 2014; Richards et al., 2014; Schempp, Sparkes & Templin, 1993; Stran & Curtner-Smith, 2009; Stroot & Williamson, 1993; Templin & Richards, 2014; Templin & Schempp, 1989; Zeichner & Gore, 1990) that suggests that tertiary education has "limited impact" (Richards et al., 2014, p.118) on changing beliefs and dispositions about teaching that were previously acquired. The influence of their tertiary education experiences on their beliefs and practices must also be considered regarding the early learning outlined and discussed in chapter 12 and Dewey's notion of continuity.

## **16.1 Different PETE programmes – When sport and PE merge**

The three participants who completed tertiary education in the same institution in New Zealand (Mark, Rachel and Christina) showed contradictory beliefs about pedagogy for teaching and sport coaching. But David, who completed formal training in the U.K., believed in a student/athlete-centred approach for both coaching and teaching. As the odd one out, Sarah didn't undertake any formal teacher education to become a PE teacher or coach, but like David, her beliefs and approaches to coaching leaned towards an athlete-centred approach. Similar to what was shown in the previous chapter, the discrepancy observed between the participants' beliefs and practice suggests that the cultural setting where their formal training took place influenced what they learnt, and consequently their beliefs about teaching and coaching. During University, David was exposed to the TGfU approach to teaching and coaching that emphasised a holistic approach where the students' and athletes' development and enjoyment were the priority. He learnt about the interrelatedness between sport and PE and was encouraged to think critically about the dominant approaches that were mostly coach-centred, and despite being in a PETE programme, David recognised that University "did influence my coaching". Furthermore, the use of contemporary approaches such as TGfU to teach was something that was also being encouraged in schools, with some of them closely working with Loughborough University in the implementation of a student/athlete-centred approach in their system. This seems to have given David the opportunity to put into practice what he had learnt and cement his beliefs in a student/athlete-centred approach. A sense of continuum was again noticeable in David's learning experiences, which reinforced his early dispositions toward teaching and coaching. An example of that was the fact that the importance he attributed to decision making during his childhood experiences of informal play was enhanced during tertiary education, as he learnt from Rod Thorpe about the importance of decision making in the game:



..how you get to an objective or goal it doesn't always require the absolute correct technique... Is how... Is your ability to make decisions under pressure are probably more important. Yeah, the technical model is less important in the invasion games, in particular, so yeah, that's probably the key thing I've learned from him. It's more the 'how to' not the 'this is what you do'.

To the contrary, in New Zealand Mark, Rachel and Christina seem to have learnt that PE and sport are very different and don't share the same goals. They developed a belief in student-centred, inquiry-based teaching in physical education but saw the traditional coach-centred, direct instruction as the only way to coach, not even considering an alternative approach such as Game Sense or TGfU. In a regional or national environment that promoted traditional, "command" style coaching, this could be understandable, but athlete-centred coaching has come to be a feature of New Zealand coaching and coach education over the past decade (see, Kidman, 2005; Light et al., 2015). Indeed, a study just published in 2018 on New Zealand rugby coaches, identifies a strong preference for athlete-centred and holistic approaches to coaching among the coaches and suggests the dominance of this approach in New Zealand (Hassanin et al., 2018). In this study, the participants had a holistic approach toward coaching and "saw coaching as an educational and socializing practice that develops the whole person and not just the player as a component of the team" (Hassanin et al., 2018, p.8). This suggests that tensions between student/athlete-centred and teacher/coach-centred were only within the school environment and between PE and school sport and not sport in general.

These contradictory concepts of PE and sport pedagogy help to understand the lack of continuity observed between Mark, Rachel and Christina's childhood experiences of informal

play and their later experiences of PE and school sport. However, it also suggests that Mark's, Rachel's and Christina's PETE programme was fundamental in the development of their contradictory beliefs about teaching and coaching as it was there that they actively and "formally" learnt about PE and school sport and their role as teachers and coaches.

As Dewey (1938) argued, "experiences may be so disconnected from one another that, while each is agreeable or exciting in itself, they are not linked cumulatively to one another" (p.26). While all participants took a student-centred, inquiry-based approach to teach, only two connected with their early experiences in their coaching (David and Sarah), which shows that Mark's, Rachel's and Christina's early experiences were not cumulative and didn't connect well with later experiences. This seems to be the break between early experiences and those most immediately shaping their professional outlook. However, there appeared to be continuity from their final years of school through to the time of the study in which experiences at University made a significant contribution to their beliefs about teaching and coaching.

The different views about teaching and coaching Mark, Christina and Rachel revealed to have, seemed to have been strongly influenced by their PETE experiences, yet, David's PETE experience linked to and reinforced his early experiences of free play and exposure to athlete-centred coaching before entering University. Despite generating different outcomes, all four participants had in common the fact that their PETE programmes greatly influenced their developing beliefs and approaches, and the fact that their decision to pursue PETE was made during later stages of acculturation phase (15-18 years old). According to Lortie (1975), "recruits into all school subject matters decide to become teachers either comparatively early or comparatively late" (Cited, Richards & Gaudreault, 2017, p.37) with Doolittle, Dodds and Placek (1993, cited Richards & Gaudreault, 2017, p. 37) suggesting that, "in physical education 'late deciders' have been shown to be more likely to be influenced by their PETE than 'early deciders'". Their late choice to become PE teachers might help explain why PETE seemed to

have been so relevant in the development of their beliefs about teaching and coaching and later on in their practice, even though it influenced Mark's, Rachel's and Christina's beliefs toward a student-centred approach for teaching and a coach-centred approach for coaching, and David's beliefs toward a student/athlete-centred approach for both teaching and coaching.

## **16.2 Tensions between Sport and PE**

Mark, Rachel and Christina saw school Sport and PE as being completely separate, and this seemed to be due to what and how they learnt about the New Zealand PE curriculum:

PE is a curriculum subject, and in New Zealand, it is underpinned by four key concepts (Hauora, Attitudes and Values, the Socio-ecological Perspective and Health Promotion). This means that through everything we do we must acknowledge that we are also building students' understanding of these concepts, not similar to concepts they would learn while playing sport. In the curriculum PE also has four strands; A- Personal health and physical development, B- Movement concepts and motor skills, C- Relationships with other people, and D- Healthy Communities and Environments. You can already sense that PE is holistic, and sport is not. At our school, we value teaching and learning in all four strands of PE, whereas other schools may only focus on B strand (movement and motor skills) and this is where the line between sport and PE may get blurred. But according to our curriculum, PE is not the same as sport as it is underpinned by concepts that would not be covered in sport, e.g. contributing to communities, challenging assumptions in the media, assertiveness, discrimination, roles and responsibilities, social responsibility, etc. (Rachel, Int. 3)

Both the Ministry of Education (1999, 2005, 2007) and Sport New Zealand in its document, *School Sport Futures Project (SSFP): The final report* (2015), see PE and Sport as two areas that should work together and have the same vision. They also contend that sport could be especially relevant to physical education (Culpan, 2005). The SSFP (2015) stated that “Schools are about child development, learning and achievement. Sport and PE contribute to this, but only if quality opportunities are provided. We need to support our school communities and teachers in their part in PE curriculum and school sport participation” (p.28). Sport New Zealand seemed to support and understand that:

...improved PE and sport experiences will help kids to engage, to learn and to achieve in all subjects. If we want to raise student achievement, we need to provide a holistic learning environment to do that. Studies (see Martin, 2010) back the value of sport and PE for increased engagement, improved cognitive functioning and academic achievement (Sport New Zealand, 2015, p.7).

These statements contradict Rachel’s contention that sport does not have a holistic approach and that it is separate from PE, but there is some contradiction with Sport New Zealand (2015) that could have contributed to Rachel’s apparent confusion:

Sports are operating in a very competitive commercial environment, and the drive for participant numbers/revenue is at the forefront of marketing sports into the younger age groups. They are targeting schools as “markets”, e.g. children are to be brought into their sport and to be kept in that single sport for as long as possible. This can restrict the range of skills that children develop, diminish their all-round development, and

stops many children from developing a wide range of skills and experimenting with different sports. (p.8)

School sport in New Zealand is often dependent on external sport providers, and this has created a demand for results. The students' needs started being overpowered by the financial facet of School Sport, and the "pressure being put on kids (e.g. extending and conflicting seasons, constant training, too many tournaments, pressure to succeed ('talent' programmes) and at times financial pressure through clubs focusing on revenue generation increased". Some of the schools that were supportive of sport started to doubt the value of school sport as it wasn't being used as a way for "engagement and learning, e.g. using sport as a vocabulary building mechanism; and its ability to assist in establishing peer relationships". While schools, "acknowledged that the ideal was for schools and clubs to co-exist well together" (Sport New Zealand, 2015, p.12), they also noted that the way school sport was being managed was a concern. And despite the relationship between PE and Sport that was also demonstrated by the PE curriculum, there was a fear that PE was being seen as "the foundation stone" for sport performance (Culpan, 2005, p.13).

These statements help me understand the tensions between PE and Sport in New Zealand that I observed during the study developed. It suggests that the distinction between Physical Education and Sport was mainly developed as a strategy implemented by schools, and that was passed on to Mark, Rachel and Christina during their PETE programme as a way of avoiding PE being seen as the "foundation for sport performance", which would be seen to diminish the educational value of PE. This was evident in Rachel's efforts to draw a line between PE and Sport clearly:

There is no curriculum for sport. All I can say is that sport prepares students for competition and elite levels of their chosen code, PE does not. PE would only contribute to this vision by giving the students the capability to lead and communicate effectively, which they may choose to use in their own sporting careers. The biggest goal for PE would be to help students learn how to contribute to their communities in a health-enhancing way and equip students with the skills to relate effectively and positively with those around them, to be able to accept diversity and create environments that are inclusive for all.

As this division between PE and Sport seemed deeply embedded in the school system, Mark, Rachel and Christina would likely have experienced these tensions since a young age, which suggests that their opposing beliefs about teaching and coaching were shaped well before their formal training. During acculturation (Lawson, 1983), and through observation and interactions with teachers, coaches, and others these three participants developed “strong impressions about the occupational role of the PE teacher” (Richards et al., 2014, p.116), which seem to have been the catalyst for their beliefs about teaching and coaching. This idea is reinforced by Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin (2008) who say that their impressions have great importance and strongly influence their beliefs and future practices as a teacher. However, some literature suggests (see, for example, Lortie, 1975) that despite the importance of the early experiences of socialisation in teachers practice and beliefs, and how they often reproduce what they see, “their views, however, are often distorted because they are exposed to only a limited view of the technical culture of teaching” (Richards et al., 2014, p.116).

This suggests that the beliefs about teaching and coaching that Mark, Rachel, Christina and also David held when they entered their PETE programmes were possibly challenged during professional socialisation. However, instead of being challenged their beliefs about the

differences between the aims, purpose and pedagogy of teaching and coaching appeared to have been reinforced during their PETE programmes.

### **16.3 Summary**

Professional socialisation and the PETE programmes for four of the participants seem to have been crucial in developing strong beliefs about teaching and coaching. The importance tertiary education had in shaping the participants' beliefs about teaching and coaching varied between the three educated in a physical education programme in New Zealand, one in a general education programme and one in a PETE programme in the U.K.. As the only participant that didn't pursue a PETE programme, Sarah's tertiary education experiences in accountancy didn't have any influence in shaping her beliefs about coaching, as they were mostly influenced by her experiences of informal play, and later experiences as an athlete and coach. Even though her experiences have shown continuity over her life and that seemed to have generated strong beliefs in an athlete-centred approach, looking at the phases of socialisation that the other participants have gone through, there was an interruption in Sarah's development as a coach as she didn't pursue coaching education. The participants that had formal training to become PE teachers experienced different cultural settings and were exposed to distinct views on teaching and coaching that shaped their practice and beliefs in different ways. The tensions between PE and school sport seemed evident in the New Zealand context even before Mark's, Rachel's and Christina's enrolment in University. However, it seems to have been during PETE that they became aware and learnt about them which suggests that their teacher education was crucial in shaping their beliefs about teaching and coaching, and later on, their approaches in opposite directions regarding teaching and coaching. PETE also seems to have had a strong influence on David's beliefs about teaching and coaching and his practice,

but it confirmed his beliefs and inclinations before PETE due to the continuity of his experiences.

The influence of PETE on the three participants who completed it in New Zealand seems to provide the best explanation for their contradictory beliefs about PE teaching and sport coaching. For David it contributed to the continuity of his education/learning. For Mark, Rachel and Christina it confirmed their beliefs about a student-centred approach to PE teaching that can be traced back to their early childhood and their enjoyment of informal games free of adult interference. However, the dominant theme in their PETE programme was the separation of PE and sport coaching and a completely different view of their aims, purpose and the pedagogy that should be used. What seems to be of central importance here is the influence of continuity and interaction on the participants' development of beliefs and how the particularities of cultural settings shaped this. This is why David's experiences of tertiary education reflected the continuum in his learning that generated durable beliefs in a student/athlete-centred approach. Mark's, Rachel's and Christina's experiences during University suggest some continuity of their learning experiences but also how the cumulative experiences during their later stages of acculturation provided some continuity with their experiences of PETE that reinforced their opposing beliefs about teaching and coaching.



## 17. School Context

The influence of school context, and how the participants' workplace shaped their approaches and beliefs about coaching and teaching seemed subtle, as they exhibited strong beliefs about teaching and coaching by the time they completed tertiary education. However, it was evident that the beliefs and practice of all the participants had been and were being strongly shaped by the socio-cultural contexts of schools.

The impact that the school setting seemed to have in teachers beliefs and approaches to teaching appears to be closely related to how Lawson (1938), and more recently Richards, Templin and Graber (2014), see organisational socialisation (workplace socialisation). They see this time as being an ongoing process throughout teachers careers, "spanning the years from the beginning of the educational experience to the exit from the profession, and is unique to each individual, as each teacher encounters a different array of life experiences, circumstances, and conditions" (Richards & Gaudreault, 2017, p.82). Some of the more experienced teachers in the study, such as Mark and David, recognised that their experiences in different school settings had affected their practice and how they saw teaching and coaching. David's beliefs in a student/athlete-centred approach were challenged by his experiences of coaching in New Zealand, as he sometimes saw his approach shift toward a teacher/coach-centred approach over his first few years in New Zealand. Mark's approach to teaching and coaching became progressively more student/athlete-centred after being in a school where more contemporary approaches were being adopted (such as TGfU and Game Sense). These two examples lend support to the idea that workplace socialisation is ongoing and shaped by institutions. This not only suggests that context can influence an individual's approaches and beliefs to teaching and coaching, but also that the same beliefs and approaches can be "re-

challenged” or reinforced when practitioners move to a new setting. As Templin and Richards (2014) suggest, “teacher socialisation is not always clear-cut, but is contextual, and varies over career phases and life stages” (p.441).

### **17.1 Socialisation in different school contexts**

At the time of the study, two of the participants (Rachel and Christina) were early career PE teachers and had only been teaching for a short period of time. They were in the early stages of organisational socialisation (Lawson, 1938), and the school they were working at by the time of the study (Laguna College) was their first appointment. Some see these first few years as educators as the induction stage (see, for example, Fessler & Christensen, 1992; Richards & Gaudreault, 2017), and the period during which beginning teachers “navigate the cultural norms within schools which are related to assumed societal expectations” (Richards & Gaudreault, 2017, p. 85). This is seen as a challenging stage where opposing views of colleagues can generate “internal conflict” for these new educators and, according to Blankenship and Coleman (2009), “even lead to washout of skills and beliefs” (as cited in Richards & Gaudreault, 2017, p. 85).

For Rachel and Christina, their colleagues from the PE department were of great importance in how they learnt their role in the school and what was expected from them. Christina stated that:

I am only teaching for two months, and I must confess that in the beginning I was scared of doing something wrong or...just the fact that I did not have much experience was always in the back of my mind in the beginning... especially with Year 11 and 12 students... ‘How am I going to relate with them when I am just a few years older?’ ‘Will they respect me?’... If for some reason a class didn’t go as planned I used to

question if my approach was correct.... I think that...I think that the teachers from my department have been amazing in trying to help me feel confident in my teaching.... Here they emphasise critical thinking and... we talk a lot with each other and have discussions about our classes and what do we think went wrong or really well, and we want to keep doing...It's like... we all understand that our main goal is to help the students become self-sufficient not only in class but in life... so I feel like... I think that we have some really good 'pep talks' that encouraged me... They helped me a lot when I first came, and they still do...sometimes I even go and watch some of their classes to take some ideas...that really helped me, and I am glad that we have a really good environment here...it has been such a good experience.

Christina's relationships and interaction with her colleagues at Laguna College strongly influence her approaches to teaching. Despite being there for a short period, her beliefs in a student/athlete-centred approach also seemed to have been reinforced. Her colleagues let her know what she was expected to achieve with her teaching and actively reinforced the vision of the school on benefitting students. This is a case of teachers being, "impacted and restricted by community expectations and psychological and social influences in the settings in which they taught" (Richards & Gaudreault, 2017, p. 81). Palincsar (1998) reinforces this idea arguing that, learners grasp the learning outcomes through the work and interactions with others, and this produces new strategies, acquirement of knowledge and an understanding of the world and culture. Christina learnt the norms, and understood, the expectations of Laguna College, which influenced her approaches towards teaching but also came to reinforce the belief in a student-centred approach that she seemed to bring with her since she well before teacher education.

Like Christina, by the time Rachel finished tertiary education her beliefs about teaching were student-centred. Her coaching approach was coach-centred, but she was teaching at

Laguna College, where the students' needs were a priority in a department that wanted them to be active in their learning process. This school context strengthened Rachel's beliefs in a student-centred approach, which is also what happened with Christina. However, extracurricular activities such as sport were not a priority in the school. There was also tension in the school between sport and PE as Rachel said that at Laguna College they valued teaching and learning but that there was a line between PE and sport and that "according to our curriculum, PE is not the same as sport". Despite the fact that up to this date "there is a comparatively small body of research on Communities of Practice (CoP) in PE" (Yoon & Armour, 2017, p.428), Christina's and Rachel's experiences at Laguna College aligned with theory on situated learning and CoP. As Yoon and Armour (2017) say:

...learning is understood not simply as acquiring new knowledge individually, but as a process of participating in (learning) communities and interactions with others. In particular, mutual engagement (identity or membership), a joint enterprise (common goals of a teacher learning community), and a shared repertoire (subjects or materials what teachers share) characterise learning from this perspective. (p.428)

This suggests that the interactions they had with other teachers shaped their actions within the school and their approaches to teaching and coaching, and how they learnt about what was expected from them was influenced by the school context and community. The complexity of factors influencing the participants' organisational experiences suggests that they learnt by actively participating and engaging with the school community they were inserted in, and also suggests a strong connection with socio-cultural constructivist views on learning (Bruner, 1996; Dewey, 1938; Vygotsky, 1978) that share the idea that learning is an active process that is socially and culturally constructed.

Despite being a more experienced teacher, Mark told me that he felt the informal conversations he had with other teachers from the PE department influenced his approach to teaching and coaching. In the organisational socialisation phase, he was at a stage referred to as competency building where “teachers are ambitious and make an effort to incorporate new teaching methodologies” (Richards & Gaudreault, 2017, p. 86), as they are focused on the progress of their skills and competencies. As Fessler and Christensen (1992) argued, “competency building stage teachers are eager to learn and communicate with their peers. They regularly seek out professional development in an attempt to improve the quality of instruction (as cited in Richards & Gaudreault, 2017, p. 86). This desire to improve was evident in Mark’s account as he said he was “always willing to learn so.... I think just being exposed to, you know, different methods of teaching, you know, different ways of thinking, I don’t mind giving things a go...”.

With more experience than Rachel and Christina, Mark had taught and coached in different settings that influenced his approaches to teaching that varied from school to school. During his first experience as a teacher he taught at a low decile school (for two years), and he believed he had a more holistic approach and used different strategies to keep the students engaged and “out of trouble”. Later on, when he moved to Luther High School (where he taught for six years), Mark saw his approaches to teaching and coaching lean toward a student/athlete-centred approach that suggests that the humanistic and holistic approach he was previously exposed to was reinforced. While his previous beliefs about teaching seem to have been enhanced, the school context and its contemporary vision challenged and shaped his coaching approaches and beliefs. It shifted them toward an athlete-centred approach. Even though Mark’s early experiences of teaching and coaching during the induction stage seem to have influenced his beliefs and approaches towards a student/athlete-approach, his later experiences at St. Nicolas College came to challenge his beliefs and approaches to teaching and reinforced

his previous beliefs about coaching that were coach-centred. The school emphasised not only academic excellence but also sport performance. This conservative vision appeared to have once again shaped Mark's approaches about teaching and coaching, this time towards a teacher/coach-centred approach, despite the visible glimpses of a student/athlete-centred approach in his practice.

The idea that Mark's experiences at St. Nicolas reinforced the beliefs about coaching he developed during acculturation and professional socialisation phases, and also that influenced his approaches about teaching aligns with Curtner-Smith's (2009) ideas on school culture. He suggests that "schools' organisational cultures, are very powerful themselves and, if they are custodial in nature, often operate to reaffirm values and perspectives first learned during the initial acculturation period" (Cited, Richards & Gaudreault, 2017, p. 36). It also suggests that Mark's active and prolonged participation at Luther High School and now at St. Nicolas (where he still teaches) were central in challenging and/or reinforcing his approaches to teaching and coaching, which aligns with Lave and Wenger's (1991) concept of legitimate peripheral participation. This is shown by how Mark's approaches to teaching and coaching shifted due to his "learning engagement in communities of practice" (Young & MacPhail, 2014, p.99), and how he moved from being a "newcomer" to mature practitioner, referred to as "old-timer", within those communities (Young & MacPhail, 2014, p.12).

The influence of context was also evident in David's story even though his story suggests an embodied belief in student/athlete-centred developed over his life experiences. He recognised that his approaches to coaching were subdued by the short coaching courses he attended when he first came to New Zealand, but which was reignited by attending a Game Sense conference in 2015, where he reconnected to his embedded student/athlete-centred beliefs about teaching coaching. Although David and Mark had more experience as teachers and coaches than the others, they also seemed to have experienced some pressure from the

institutions they taught in to adapt to the cultures of the schools and the communities they served. The fact that Rachel's, Christina's, David's and Mark's beliefs about teaching and coaching were either challenged or strengthened according to each school context aligns with teacher socialisation literature (see, for example Richards & Gaudreault, 2017; Richards, et al., 2014; Templin & Richards, 2014; Curtner-Smith, Hastie, & Kinchin, 2008; Curtner-Smith, 2001; Lawson, 1938; 1986) that suggests that socialisation in the workplace is ongoing and forms a constant influences on teachers' experiences throughout their career.

Once again, Sarah's experiences were distinct from the other participants as she didn't seem to have experienced organisational socialisation the same way. She acknowledged that, at St. Nicolas, basketball was not one of the main sports and that she had to adapt to the fact that some of her players had other sports as a priority or just different expectations about basketball:

The only change I have in mind is... and we have to be very mindful, is that I'm coaching at a school where the expectations and demand of results are really high but there are a lot of different athletes playing basketball. Some are there for competitive reasons, some are there for fun, and some are just there for social, so it's overcoming that and try to compete with other sports because once the girls realize they are doing really well, everything shifts and they actually want to do really well in basketball, and they want to win titles.

This suggests some influence of the school context in how she became aware not only of the school's expectations but also of her players' needs and motivations. However, the fact that her role at the school was mostly external, and she wasn't involved as much with the school community apart from her athletes suggests that neither her approaches nor her beliefs about

coaching were deeply influenced by her experiences at the school. Some of the factors that, according to Lawson (1986), contribute to shape and/or reshape one's beliefs and approaches during organisational socialisation, such as colleagues, students/athletes, school context, and school community were not evident in Sarah's story as she didn't have an active role in the school like the other participants seemed to have as teachers.

### **17.2 *Superficial change vs Real change***

Neophyte teachers "enter the school and are taught about school culture and the responsibilities associated with their role by their experienced colleagues through the 'institutional press', which tends to perpetuate the status quo" (Richards & Templin, 2011, p.342). Thus, "pedagogical practices and perspectives learned during PETE which are incompatible with a school's culture are often 'washed out'" (Curtner-Smith, 2001, p. 82) by the particularities of each school setting. Despite the influence of the school context in the participants' beliefs and approaches about teaching and coaching, their experiences seem to have shaped more their practice than their actual beliefs. For example, Mark, was able to change and adapt his approaches to teaching and coaching according to with the school context and expectations. This was proved by his ability to contradict his coach-centred beliefs in coaching and adopt an athlete-centred approach when he taught at Luther High School, and later on, going back to a coach-centred approach when teaching at St. Nicolas College. This idea was further accentuated by David's ability to recognise the pressure he felt to adopt more traditional, coach-centred approaches and adapt his coaching approaches according to the demand but stay true to his beliefs in an athlete-centred approach.

This peculiarity raised the following question for me: "Are the participants' beliefs actually being shaped by the school setting or are they merely adapting their approaches to best fit the vision of the school and what is expected from them?" Sparks' (1991) concepts of *real*



change and *superficial* change seem to help answer this question. Sparks (1991) sees *real* change as “transformation in the ways that people think and feel about the world around them” (p. 3), which requires an internalised modification of the status quo. This was also emphasised by Richards and Templin (2011) who suggest that *real* change “requires teachers to modify their previously held beliefs and adopt those in line with best practice” (p.343). On the other hand, *superficial* change seems to occur when “it appears as if the initiative is producing change on the surface levels, but in reality, the teacher’s belief systems are relatively unaffected” (p.343). According to the literature (see, for example, Curtner-Smith et al., 2008; Lawson, 1938; 1986; Richards & Templin, 2011), teachers’ and coaches’ beliefs are firmly established well before they enter school as teachers. If what they are introduced to when entering the workplace is not in consonance with what they anticipate or consider important, then the probability of *real* change happen is reduced (Sparks, 1991).

Looking at Mark’s and David’s narratives, a *superficial* change was more evident than a *real* change. Mark’s experiences in different school settings didn’t seem to actually change his beliefs about teaching and coaching. What seems to have happened was a process of adaptation of his approaches to meet the requirements of each school. When the school vision was similar to his beliefs about coaching and teaching, his beliefs were confirmed but if the expectations of the school were not what he believed his approach seemed to change according to what was expected from him. For example, at Luther High School the contemporary (student/athlete-centred) vision of the school did not match his beliefs especially regarding coaching, and for that reason, only during the time he taught and coached there, he adopted and saw the value of student/athlete-centred approaches, going back to his coached-centred beliefs and approaches as soon as he moved to St. Nicolas College, a school where the vision aligned with his beliefs about coaching.

With David's story, this was also observable as the strong beliefs in a student/athlete-centred approach he had developed since early on, were challenged when he moved to New Zealand by coaching experiences he had. However, and despite some noticed fluctuations in his approach, his beliefs weren't affected, suggesting that in both Mark's and David's case the influence of the school culture only generated *superficial* change and didn't have a lasting effect in shaping their beliefs about teaching and coaching.

In regard to Rachel and Christina, they had only experience teaching and coaching in one school, which makes it more difficult to identify changes to suit the school. Laguna College's vision coincided with their beliefs in a student-centred approach for teaching and a coach-centred approach for coaching which didn't allow further exploration of the influence of school context in their beliefs and approaches. However, both Rachel and Christina recognised during the interviews that their approaches, specifically to teaching, wouldn't probably be the same if they were teaching in higher decile schools which suggests that at least their approaches would be likely influenced by different settings. Yet, the question if different contexts would shape their beliefs remains.

Contrasting with Mark's and David's stories, neither Sarah's approaches nor beliefs seemed to have been influenced by St. Nicolas context. Even though she recognised that while coaching there she became more aware of her athletes' needs, as basketball was not the main sport for most of her players, her deep beliefs in an athlete-centred approach were not challenged. The school's conservative vision and emphasis on performance didn't seem to have had an impact in Sarah's approaches as it was not possible to observe either *superficial* change or *real* change, with her beliefs and "motherly:" approach remaining strong.

Regardless the relative importance of each school setting in shaping the participants' beliefs and approaches about teaching and coaching, and whether or not the changes that they triggered were *real* or *superficial*, the interactions they had in those specific contexts seem to

have formed the main influence for challenging or confirming the participants' beliefs and approaches about teaching and coaching. This aligns with social constructivist views on learning (see, Bruner, 1996; Dewey, 1933, 1938; Vygotsky, 1978) that recognise the importance and influence of context in one's beliefs and perspectives. It also aligns with Lave and Wenger's (1991) ideas on situated learning and communities of practice that acknowledge the relevance, and place great importance on context, and the power it has in shaping approaches to teaching and coaching. All these perspectives sit upon constructivist epistemology (Light, 2008).

### **17.3 Summary**

The importance of school culture, and to what extent they have contributed to shape the participants' beliefs and approaches was not completely clear and as suggested by Templin and Richards (2014) varied over "career phases and life stages". What initially appeared to be a strong influence of the school setting in the participants' beliefs and consequently in their practice, revealed to be, later on, a pressure to conform to the school vision and requirements more than a real, and lasting influence on the participants' beliefs. Sparks' (1991) concepts of *real* and *superficial* change helped explain not only how Mark's and David's approaches to teaching and coaching fluctuated during their experiences in different contexts, but also helped understand how those experiences only shaped their approaches and beliefs at a superficial level as their previous beliefs remained strong.

Spark's (1991) distinction between practice and beliefs was central to understanding and accounting for the ways in which school context influenced these teachers. Teachers and coaches' approaches were visible with my observations of their practice early in the study, and were central to developing knowledge about the participants' practice, but identifying their

beliefs was far more difficult. This involved digging deeper than merely asking them what their beliefs are because so much of what we believe exists and operates at a non-conscious, embodied level. As part of the individual habitus, embodied beliefs can operate at a level below the scrutiny of the conscious mind, which makes the operation of the habitus so powerful and difficult to change (Bourdieu, 1986). This suggests that the changes in the ways that the participants taught and coached games and team sports were conscious changes as ways of adapting to the expectations of the school, other teachers and the pupils but did not necessarily reflect changes in their beliefs.

Lave and Wenger (1991) concepts of communities of practice, legitimate peripheral participation and situated learning can be used to understand how the cultures of schools might have influenced the beliefs of the participants. Members of a community of practice (CoP) learn the culture of the CoP over time through participation in its practices in ways that reproduce it. This begins with legitimate peripheral participation that becomes deeper over time. It suggests that for the school context to influence beliefs, the participants would need to be there for long periods of time. People can be members of different CoP that might overlap and move in and out of CoP over their lives. For the participants, the schools they worked in would have influenced their beliefs over time but would not have been the only influence. In terms of how they taught and coached team sport and their beliefs about it, the crucial thing to think about is that their beliefs developed over their early experiences of sport, play and school and then how teacher education created the dispositions toward school practices of teaching and coaching team sport.

Despite the fact that it wasn't possible to explain to what extent school context generated *real* or *superficial* change in Rachel's and Christina's beliefs and approaches, it was clear to me that context and interactions influenced their beliefs and practice by confirming or challenging those they brought into the school. Their experiences at Laguna College seem to

align with socio-cultural constructivist views on learning, such as Bruner's (1996) and Vygotsky's (1978) that see learning as an active process, as they seemed to have drawn on existing knowledge and dispositions to interpret their learning experiences. The difference between the participants' experiences of organisational socialisation, and how the schools they taught in acted as CoP suggest how long-term positions at these schools involved some learning of their cultures via participation in the practices of the school, but also how shorter term positions didn't produce as much change. This view of ongoing learning through interaction, shaped by context, is also consistent with constructivist perspectives as it shares the same epistemological assumptions. This chapter suggests that the participants' beliefs and approaches about teaching and coaching were influenced by the culture of the schools they taught and coached in, and were shaped by the degree of continuity of learning over their lives. That is to say that the specificities of, and vision within, each school context promoted continuity or discontinuity of their experiences, which in turn, challenged or reinforced the participants' previous beliefs about teaching and coaching.

## **18. Thesis Discussion**

### **18.1 Introduction**

The detailed focus on five participants in this study revealed individual variations shaped by their different life trajectories but, at the same time, identified three phases of significance in a process of acculturation and organisational socialisation. Although this supports a significant body of research (see, for example, Lawson, 1983, 1986; Richards & Gaudreault, 2017; Richards et al., 2014; Templin & Richards, 2014; Templin & Schempp, 1989), it differs by suggesting the significance of formal teacher education (PETE) in shaping the participants' beliefs and practice (see, for example Curtner-Smith, 1999; Doolittle et al., 1993; Dowling, 2011; Matanin & Collier, 2003; Ryan & Bridges, 2000).

Experiences across the three strong themes, as stages of the participants' lives and professional development, can be linked when viewed as involving what Dewey (1938) refers to as a continuum of learning. The three stages or periods of development identified in this study were:

(1) Early experiences and interactions, with a focus on how their experiences of schooling and sport at a young age shaped their early beliefs and dispositions towards teaching and coaching.

(2) The influence of tertiary education, with a focus on how their PETE programmes were relevant to challenge or reinforce the beliefs they have developed during the acculturation phase.

(3) School context, with a focus on how each school they have taught and coached in have continuously influenced their approaches to teaching and coaching.

Along with other constructivists such as Vygotsky (1978) and Bruner (see, 1996), Dewey (see, 1938) sees learning as an ongoing process that is shaped by experience, social interaction and context. This helps see how the participants' beliefs and approaches were developed, shaped and reshaped over the three stages identified in this study.

Despite the fact that the trajectory of four of the participants aligns with the phases of occupational socialisation (Lawson, 1983) identified during the Findings chapters, Dewey's work addresses some of the assumptions made in the teacher socialisation literature. He offers a more sophisticated, detailed and deeper understanding of the individual experiences of the participants as they develop their beliefs and practice. It looks at their individual development and the continuity of their experiences as a whole instead of just locating them in a more structured theory.

## **18.2 The Continuity of Learning Experiences**

This study uncovered numerous aspects of the participants' experience and learning that were "intertwined" with each other to gradually shape or reshape the participants' beliefs and practice over their lives. The development of the participants' beliefs relates to how Dewey (1938) sees "education as growth", as a "*continual process of becoming*" (Armour et al., 2017, p.806). For Dewey, experience has the power to form and reform ideas with "growth" (1938, p.36), understood as being an "on-going process of constant reconstruction of experiences in ways that enable individuals to make sense of even broader realms of experiences and to develop increasingly diverse responses in dealing with the environment" (Armour et al., 2017, p.806).

Experience has a central place in Dewey's views on learning as he recognises that the quality and nature of present experiences shape humans' understanding of future experiences, and consequently learning. He theorised this as the principle of continuity of experience or more

specifically as a “experiential continuum” (1938, p. 28). This concept helps in understanding the “interdependence” Dewey (1938) identified between the participants’ experiences over their lives. He (1938) explained this by saying that:

The principle of continuity of experience means that every experience both takes up something from those which have gone before and modifies in some way the quality of those which come after ... The process goes on as long as life and learning continues.  
(p. 27)

To fully understand the concept of “experiential continuum”, it is crucial to understand Dewey’s views on context and environment as he believes that context can only be understood through experience. He sees “every experience in its direct occurrence” as “an interaction of environing conditions and an organism” (1939, p.544), and for him:

An experience is always what it is because of transaction taking place between an individual and what, at the time, constitutes his environment, whether the latter consists of persons with whom he is talking about some topic or event, the subject talked about being also a part of the situation; or the toys which he is playing with; the book he is reading (in which his environing conditions at the time may be England or ancient Greece or an imaginary region); or the materials of an experiment he is performing.  
(Dewey, 1938, pp. 43-44)

Dewey believes that “an organism does not live in the environment” but “it lives by means of an environment” (1938, p.25) and that “context is not merely environment, it is experience itself” (Quay & Stolz, 2013, p.18). As Dewey (1938, p.33) argues, “organism and environment” cannot be seen as independent things where interaction acts as “a third independent thing which finally intervenes”. Furthermore, he contends that for an experience



to be educative, continuity and interaction must be present, as they cannot be separated from each other: “An experience satisfies continuity when students adapt something from the past in a way that benefits the future” (Dewey, 1938, p.35). When continuity and interaction intersect, it creates a learning “situation” (Dewey, 1938, p. 43).

Hence, the following sections focus on understanding and explaining the importance of interaction and context that was evident in the development of the participants’ beliefs and approaches through the lens of learning as “experiential continuum”.

### **18.2.1 The Ongoing influence of social interaction.**

The importance of interaction has long been recognised in teacher socialisation and development research with Lawson’s seminal work (1983) acknowledging the importance of interactions in how students “learn the ropes” of becoming teachers in each phase of socialisation. His ideas on how teachers are socialised into the profession and how their beliefs and approaches are deeply influenced by interaction and context are closely related to how social constructivist perspectives see the process of learning. Social constructivists, such as Vygotsky (1978) and Bruner (1996) also recognise the importance and contribution of social interaction in producing change as a learning process. According to Vygotsky (1978), “the social dimensions of consciousness are primary in time and in fact. The individual dimension of consciousness is derivative and secondary” (p.30). This is accentuated by Jaan Valsiner’s (1987) views on Vygotsky’s “genetic law of development” where he says that:

Every function in the cultural development of the child comes on the stage twice, in two respects: first in the social, later in the psychological; first in relations between people as an interpsychological category, afterwards within the child as an

intrapsychological category... All higher psychological functions are internalized relationships of the social kind, and constitute the social structure of personality. (p.67)

This idea that social learning occurs prior to the individual learning reflects how interactions with others for the participants (for example coaches, teachers and later on colleagues) were so relevant and seemed to “pop out” in their stories. Social learning came through as being one of the most influential aspects in the development of the participants’ beliefs about and dispositions towards student/athlete or teacher/coach approaches, in addition to the influence of the specific context where those interactions occurred. Interactions presented a constant influence throughout the participants’ development, however, to understand the full extent of its influence it was crucial to comprehend the meaning and continuity of those interactions.

Dewey’s concept of interaction is linked to his concept of continuity and suggests an interaction between what is learned and the learner, and between past experiences and the present situation to generate an individual’s present experience. The cumulative aspect of interactions identified in Dewey’s work provides a better understanding of how the participants’ experiences were a product “of continuous and cumulative interaction of an organic self with the world.” (1981, p. 276).

The influence of social interaction in the development of the participants’ beliefs and approaches toward teaching and coaching was evident in this study since early stages, as their accounts revealed that they acknowledged the importance of parents, siblings and peers in their initial interest in sport. During their childhood, they emphasised the influence of their experiences of playing unstructured games with their friends, and how they used to make their own rules. This suggests that since very young, their understanding of games and sport was collectively being shaped as they interacted and discussed ideas with their peers. Later, they

also identified the relevance of the relationships they created with their teachers and coaches that shaped not only their perceptions and beliefs about teaching and coaching but also their decision to become teachers and coaches in the first instance. This is supported by literature that confirms that during childhood and adolescence, experiences and interactions with relevant people are central to the development of recruits' subjective ideas about teaching (see, for example, Hutchinson, 1993; Pemmer, 2009; Richards & Gaudreault, 2017; Templin & Richards, 2014). Specifically, these interactions enabled the participants to perceive what it meant to be a physical education teacher and to visualise themselves as future teachers and coaches (Curtner-Smith, 2009), as these understandings during early years underpinned lasting perceptions about their roles and work as future PE teachers (Curtner-Smith, 2001; McMahon & MacPhail, 2007).

Their experiences of social interaction continued through tertiary education, a phase that was critical to the development of the participants' beliefs about teaching and coaching. Interestingly, and reinforcing the importance of their interactions, most of the participants (Mark, Rachel and Christina) identified their practical experiences during placements as being very relevant for their development. They emphasised the interaction with students, other teachers and coaches, and the possibility to experiment the different approaches they had learnt during their teacher education programme. Some of the theories they were exposed to in teacher education (for example GBAs such as Game Sense and TGfU), and the individual process of learning that would be expected to happen during University, were overpowered by their field experiences in a context where social interaction and collective learning held primacy.

In this stage of their development, interactions were central to bring their unconscious beliefs about teaching and coaching formed during childhood and adolescence to a more conscious state, where their beliefs matured and where they visualise their future practices. However, for Mark, Rachel and Christina, the similarity between the environment and

interactions during placements, and what they have experienced as students presented both, a certain degree of continuity and discontinuity to their experiences, which in turn, influenced their beliefs and later their approaches about teaching and coaching. While their experiences and interactions during placements provided continuity for their later experiences of schooling, they also posed as a barrier that prevented continuity of their recent experiences during PETE by “washing out” the influence of the innovative approaches they were exposed to in their PETE programme. They also accentuated the tensions between PE and sport they experienced as students, and that is evident within the school system in New Zealand. Thus, their placement experiences could be seen as what Dewey calls, “mis-educative” experience. For Dewey, a “mis-educative” experience is one that, “has the effect of arresting or distorting the growth of further experience” (Dewey, 1938, p.25).

This was different in David’s case as his experiences of placement, instead of challenging what he learnt during PETE, complemented the experiences he had. It was particularly the case in his interactions with Rod Thorpe who encouraged him to critically think about traditional approaches, which has connected to his prior experiences and interactions that disposed him towards a student/athlete-centred approach. The emphasis on critical thinking aligned with social interactions was crucial in David’s development as a teacher and as a coach, allowing him to form more steady beliefs and leading him to see the educational value of student-centred approaches for both teaching and coaching. David’s interactions and experiences were cumulative and promoted “growth”, which is closely related to continuity with “growth defined as developing physically, intellectually and morally” (Dewey, 1938/97, p.28). David’s experiences had educational value as they led to growth that later on led to further growth. As he stated, “only when development in a particular line conduces to continuing growth does it answer to the criterion of education as growing” (Dewey, 1938/97, p.29).

Owing to a lack of formal education in coaching or PE teaching, Sarah's story is distinctly different to the others, but her experiences and interactions were central to her growth as a coach and maturation of her beliefs in an athlete-centred approach. Like David, her experiences and interactions during her childhood and adolescence provided continuity and growth, with strong educational value. The social influence on her learning was as clear as it was with the other participants despite her different pathway, experiences and learning. As argued by Light (2008), when looking into learning from a social constructivist point of view, understanding and knowledge are not perceived as "an individual process but instead as a collective process spread across the individual's world. The understandings and capabilities that emerge from social interaction with a group are greater than those that are possible at an intrapersonal level" (p.25).

The continuous influence of social interaction in this study was also visible in the participants' more recent experiences as they acknowledged how their colleagues influenced their approaches toward teaching and coaching. It **shows** that their experiences of social interactions generated the feeling of, what Lawson (1983) refers to as being "in the same boat" (p. 12), "making socialization more powerful than if an individual teacher was left to develop content alone or as a single member of an overall group" (Richards & Gaudreault, 2017, p.107).

The participants' experiences as teachers, and the particularities of the schools where they taught emerged as an important theme (see chapter 14). Through scrutinising all the information that arose from their interviews and narratives, the interactions they had in each school were critical in shaping their approaches to teaching and coaching. They had developed a set of beliefs about teaching and coaching prior starting their careers, but Mark, Rachel, Christina and David also recognised how their beliefs and approaches were challenged or reinforced by informal conversations with their colleagues, other training experiences they had and/or by their students' needs. The different approaches taken to teaching PE and coaching

sport by Mark, Christina and Rachel can be explained by Richards and Gaudreault's (2017) suggestion that "socialization, conceived in relation to social institutions, involves varying combinations of planned and unplanned interactions and learning" (p.245).

Over the participants' journeys to becoming PE teachers and coaches, the interactions they had with others assumed great importance in shaping their beliefs and approaches about teaching and coaching. These interactions generated continuity or discontinuity of their experiences since their childhood up to the moment of this study, shaping their approaches and contributing to the fluctuations observed in their practice. As stated by Dewey (1938), "amid all uncertainties there is one specific frame of reference: namely, the organic connection between education and personal experience" (p.25). This idea is further enhanced by the fact that the development of knowledge from a constructivist perspective is "enfolded in, and unfold from, social interaction; collective knowledge; and activity" (Light, 2008, p.28). Across all the participants, it was apparent that their beliefs about teaching and coaching and their approaches were a result of social experience and interactions with others in particular settings. This was accentuated by the fact that the continuity and value of those interactions had the power of arresting or promoting further growth, influencing their current practice and beliefs about teaching and coaching.

### **18.2.2 Influence of Context.**

According to Dewey (1934, p. 246), "experience is a matter of interaction of organism with its environment, and environment that is human as well as physical, that includes the materials of tradition and institutions as well as local surroundings". Drawing on Dewey (1934), the importance of the participants' interactions cannot be dissociated from the specific contexts in which they occurred, with Vygotsky, Bruner and others (see, for example Palincsar, 1998) suggesting that, "learning and development take place in socially and culturally shaped

contexts” (Palincsar, 1998, p. 354). This is a view supported in recent research such as in Curry’s (2012) investigation of implementing a TGfU approach to games teaching in an elite independent Australian school. She argues that social interaction and cultural contexts operate as, “agents for generating change and transformation in the learning process” (p.34). More recently Richards and Gaudreault (2017) point out how “the context in which teachers develop their subjective warrants, their professional socialization, and the school environment, all combine to shape and reshape the PE teacher” (p. 22). This confirms the complexity involved in teacher development and of the participants’ learning and development of beliefs about teaching and coaching games.

The strong influence of institutional context was evident over the participants’ development. From their early experiences of sport and schooling, Mark’s, Rachel’s and Christina’s experiences in New Zealand differed significantly from those of David and led to differences in their views on and beliefs about coaching sport. Despite the fact that their experiences of unstructured sport were similar, the differences between their approaches to teaching PE and coaching are linked to the New Zealand context and particularly to their experiences of PETE. While there was some continuity with their beliefs about PE teaching, their experiences in coaching became “disconnected causing disjunctions in learning continuity, affecting the scope and depth of the knowledge gained” (Yeo & Marquardt, 2015, p.85). In contrast, David’s experiences in the U.K. suggest that he was exposed to a continuous and compatible view about sport and PE.

The influence of context continued through the participants’ experiences across the stages identified but seemed most evident during their PETE programme. It was during discussions about tertiary education that Mark, Rachel and Christina started to articulate contrasting beliefs about teaching and coaching and they saw school placements as the most influential part of their tertiary education. As the literature suggests, it is during placements

that “the stages of ‘professional socialization’ and ‘organizational socialization’ overlap” (see, for example, Deenihan & MacPhail, 2017, p.478). This explains why their experiences in a “real” school context seemed to be more valuable to them and how they overpowered what they learnt in theory about innovative approaches to teaching and coaching such as TGfU and Game Sense. In addition, their placement experiences carried a certain degree of continuity between their latest experiences of schooling (where they developed contradictory beliefs about teaching and coaching), and the school context where they experienced teaching for the first time. However, they revealed to be “mis-educative” experiences (Dewey, 1938) that perpetuated the tensions between PE and sport and prevented them from seeing any possible value for both teaching and coaching. In contrast to Mark, Rachel and Christina, David’s experiences during University provided continuity and strengthened his beliefs about student/athlete coaching and teaching. David was not only immersed in a context where student-centred approaches were strongly encouraged but also in a setting where sport and PE were seen as being interrelated which have strengthened his beliefs for both teaching and coaching.

Teacher education is consistently identified in the literature as the phase with least impact in shaping teachers beliefs and approaches (Dewar, 1989; Doolittle & Schwager, 1989; Lawson, 1986; Placek, 1983; Richards et al. 2014; Stran & Curtner-Smith, 2009; Zeichner & Gore, 1990) but in this study, tertiary education formed “a bridge” between the participants’ experiences of acculturation and their later experiences as teachers and coaches (organisational socialisation). This allowed continuity in their learning process and was central to shaping the development of the participants’ beliefs. Despite this, the development of beliefs about teaching and coaching for four the participants align with the phases proposed in teacher socialisation. The exception here is Sarah, but Dewey’s work (1938/97) provides a useful perspective on how she developed her beliefs about coaching through continuity of her



experiences of being a mother and athlete through, the interaction involved and the meaning she made of them.

In the period following teacher education (during organisational socialisation), Mark, David, Rachel and Christina's experiences of teaching and coaching in different school contexts, seemed to make their practice alternate, challenging or reinforcing their beliefs in some way. This was more evident in Mark's and David's narratives as they were more experienced teachers and coaches and had experienced various contexts. When moving from the U.K. to New Zealand, David felt that not only in coaching courses he entered but also in clubs he coached at, his beliefs in a student/athlete-centred approach were challenged in settings that were more coach oriented. David said that many times he succumbed to the pressure and saw his approaches lean towards a coach-centred approach. For the first time, David experienced some disjunction that interrupted and shook his strong belief in student/athlete-centred approaches.

Mark had a similar experience as he changed his approaches according to the schools he worked at. Initially, he taught at a school where his beliefs in a student-centred approach that he left University with were reinforced, but as soon as he experienced teaching and coaching in a different environment, such as Luther High School, his coaching beliefs (that up to that moment were coach-centred) changed, becoming athlete-centred. The ongoing influence of context evident in Mark's and David's case aligns with social constructivist views on learning and how they acknowledge the complexity inherent in learning and development (Bruner, 1996; Dewey, 1938/97; Vygotsky, 1978), and how beliefs and approaches are socially constructed and reconstructed throughout one's life. Furthermore, the concept of situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991) complements this view by helping understand how "The social and cultural contexts in which a community of practice exists and to which its activities contribute have a significant influence on what is learned and how learning takes place" (Kirk

& Kinchin, 2003, p.223). This suggests that each school acted as a CoP and shaped the participants' learning in that particular context, ultimately, influencing their practice.

The fluctuations in Mark's and David's approaches show how context can shape practice as they adapted to those settings by drawing on previous knowledge, experience and dispositions. As Billingham (2007) argues, socialisation is developed through interactions with others in specific social settings. She sees socialisation as a lifelong process where individuals learn the customs, ideologies and norms that are important to the distinct culture in which they live and work. This was the case with the school contexts in this study, and how the different settings influenced the views, beliefs and practice of the participants about teaching and coaching games. This was less evident with Rachel and Christina as early career teachers. At Laguna College the school's vision aligned with their beliefs about teaching and coaching, which reinforced their prior beliefs in a student-centred approach for teaching and a coach-centred approach for coaching. Thus, it was not possible to observe if different school contexts would have influenced their beliefs in a different direction, possibly challenging their existing beliefs and approaches to teaching and coaching.

For Mark, Christina and Rachel, Teacher Education, and particularly placements, most influenced their beliefs and approaches toward teaching and coaching team sports. For them, PETE seemed to have the strongest influence on their beliefs and practice. In David's case, and despite the importance he attributed to his PETE, the construction of his beliefs and approaches toward teaching and coaching was more of a continuum, as his ongoing experiences through different contexts contributed to a gradual, but steady, development of his beliefs and approaches, being only temporarily unsettled when he moved from U.K. to New Zealand. Even though she had never heard of it, Sarah's beliefs in coaching reflected an athlete-centred approach and seemed to be firmly rooted in her own experiences as a mother and an athlete. As such, her beliefs and practice did not appear to have been influenced by any institutional

contexts she had coached in but was greatly influenced by the contexts she experienced as an athlete.

The evident continuity in the influence of context and interactions in shaping the five participants' development of beliefs and practice through their lives align with Dewey's constructivist view on learning. He sees learning as being made possible by generating meaning from different experiences (see, for example Light & Wallian, 2008). The application of Dewey's ideas on and thinking about learning allowed me to highlight how the interrelatedness between the participants' interactions and the contexts they occurred in were central to the development of their beliefs and practice. This provided deep insight and understanding of the "experiential continuum" (Dewey, 1938, p.33) of each participant. This also allowed for recognising that, despite the similarities of how they developed their beliefs and practice, it was an individual process, personally experienced and understood by each participant, and shaped by context and interaction. As Dewey says, "There is some kind of continuity in every case. It is when we note the different forms in which continuity of experience operates that we get the basis of discriminating among experiences." (1938, pp.36-37).

## 19. Conclusion

### 19.1 Introduction

Through analysis of a series of observations and interviews conducted on and with a group of physical education teachers and coaches in New Zealand, this study identifies three main findings:

- 1) Conceptualising teachers' and coaches' development as a process of learning, located in a continuum of learning over their lives provides very useful complexity to understand the process through which teachers and coaches develop their beliefs and practice.
- 2) The focus on the influence of social, cultural and institutional contexts on the participants' development of beliefs about teaching and coaching games and team sports contributes to knowledge about the situated nature of teacher and coach learning.
- 3) The rigorous inductive methodology used provides valuable detail and depth of inquiry into individual experience and learning.

Through these findings, this study provides insight into the driving forces shaping what teachers and coaches believe about teaching games and how their beliefs are continuously shaped and reshaped over their lives due to these *dynamic forces*. It provides evidence of how *contextualised, social influences* actively shaped their beliefs and practice. In addition, by keeping the focus on the teachers and coaches at an individual level, the study also allowed to identify more personal beliefs amongst the participants regarding the powerful influence of social interactions and context.

## **19.2 Contributions to knowledge in the field**

Some studies identify how teachers' and coaches' beliefs influence their interpretation of and approach to GBAs such as, TGfU and Game Sense (Butler, 1996; Jarrett & Harvey, 2014; Light, 2002; Light & Tan, 2006), but very few provide an adequate understanding of how these beliefs are developed. Certainly, with some exceptions (see, Light & Evans, 2013), very few studies on GBA have looked at how teachers' or coaches' development of beliefs is shaped by life experiences from early childhood on or paid as much attention as this study to the influence of context on individual teacher development. Often, GBA studies identify the challenges that coaches and teachers face when trying to implement innovative approaches to teaching games and team sports such as, the use of questioning and the different relationships involved as well as how they contradict their beliefs about good coaching and teaching (see, for example, Butler, 1996; Jarrett & Harvey, 2014; Light, 2002; Light & Tan, 2006). Despite the development of GBAs over the past forty years, the literature has consistently identified their slow uptake (see, for example, Jarrett & Harvey, 2014; Light, 2004; Light & Curry, 2014; Pill, 2011). In the broader coaching and teaching literature there is recognition of the importance of social interaction and context in the development of teachers and coaches beliefs (see, for example Hassanin & Light, 2014; Hassanin et al., 2018; Lawson, 1983, 1986; Light et al., 2015; Richards & Gaudreault, 2017; Richards et al., 2014; Templin & Richards, 2014), but this is limited in the GBA literature.

This study redresses these gaps and oversights in the literature by providing a more positive explanation of the complex development of teachers' and coaches' beliefs and approaches. Instead of focusing on the challenges involved in implementing innovative approaches such as GBAs or trying to understand why its uptake is not as evident as expected this study, focused on gaining insight into the driving forces shaping what teachers and coaches believe about teaching games and their learning as a continuous process. This research also

contributes to knowledge about teachers' and coaches' beliefs about and practice of GBA. It identifies how beliefs about GBAs and practise of them is influenced by social and contextual factors and how its implementation involves a process of interpretation based on existing beliefs and experience. It also suggests that the influence of GBAs may be more widespread than it is currently identified in the literature.

Focused on five teachers/coaches, this study makes a valuable contribution to the understanding of how beliefs and approaches are developed throughout one's life. My use of constructivist views on learning, and particularly Dewey's concept of continuity, made a valuable contribution to understanding and making sense of each participant's story and how experiences over time shaped their beliefs about teaching or coaching games and team sports. These changes and adaptations will go on throughout their lives (see, for example, Woods & Lynn, 2014), which means that this study is a snapshot in the continuous process of learning, showing the influence of these phases to this point in each person's career.

### **19.2.1 The main contributions.**

I suggest that this study provides three main contributions to knowledge to the field of physical education and sports coaching which are: 1) teachers and coaches beliefs are influenced by continuity of experience; 2) we need to consider the *influence* of GBAs on teachers and coaches' practice rather than assessing whether or not they are 'authentic' when considering their uptake; 3) combined CGT and NI methodology can be relevant for physical education and sport research as it provides both flexibility and depth to the research.

First, it provides evidence of how teachers and coaches learn through "experiential continuum". By focusing on the ongoing influence of experience, this study identified the ways in which context and social interaction constantly shape and reshape teaching and coaching beliefs and approaches. This provides insight into the powerful influence of experience on the

development of beliefs that consequently reflects on practice. Moreover, it identifies the central importance of PETE programmes to the “experiential continuum” of teachers. The second contribution is regarding the apparent lack or slow growth in the use of GBAs in the physical education and sport fields. This study provides evidence that even though these approaches are not being implemented in what could be called an authentic form (Aguiar & Light, 2016), GBAs are *influencing* practice but not determining it. This is a valuable contribution to these fields in a sense that identifies how the implementation and use of student/athlete-centred approaches in teaching and coaching is more than trying to fit in a model or a structure. Also it contributes to the understand that the growth of a holistic and humanistic approach towards teaching and coaching is closely related to the continuity in teachers’ and coaches’ experiences over their lives. Thus, it is possible and more realistic to locate teachers and coaches within a spectrum (going from teacher/coach-centred to student/athlete-centred) (de Aguiar & Light, 2018) rather than looking for an implementation of specific GBAs.

The third and final contribution this study makes to knowledge about GBA in teaching and coaching fields is procedural. By using a combined Constructivist Grounded Theory (CGT) and Narrative Inquiry (NI) methodology, this study combined neglected components in both coaching and teaching research generating an exciting and thorough, yet challenging methodology choice. While NI has been widely used in education research to understand teachers’ personal experiences CGT has not because it doesn’t account for the personal aspect of the experience. On the other hand, neither CGT nor NI have been consistently used in empirical coaching research. Grounded theory’s theoretical sampling strategy illuminated the link between context and social interaction in a process of “experiential continuum”. This helped identify commonalities between the participants’ teaching and coaching beliefs but it was the process of narrative analysis that helped locate the beliefs in each personal story and capture the essence of the experiences the participants had over their lives.

No previous study in physical education or sport coaching used a combined CGT and NI methodology to look at both teachers and coaches simultaneously and locate their beliefs and approaches about games teaching through a lens of continuity of experience. Light and Evans (2018) study on Indigenous sport used the same combined methodology, but its focus was not on teaching and coaching. This study is innovative in the sense that through using this combined methodology, it provides a deeper understanding of the interrelatedness of all phases of development of teachers' and coaches' beliefs, as well as the complexity of the ongoing experiences that continually influence their beliefs and approaches. Owing to its constant comparison and reflexive process, the use of this methodology has also encouraged me to think about my own experiences and how my beliefs have been constantly shaped and reshaped throughout my life. Prior to this study, I had never reflected on the importance of continuity of experience nor its close relationship with context and social interaction in my own learning and development of my beliefs about teaching and coaching. At this point, I am prone to question what teaching and coaching would look like today if teachers and coaches were called upon to look at their own experiences and the ways these have shaped who they are as individuals, and more importantly, how it influenced their beliefs and approaches towards teaching and coaching.

### **19.3 Reflections on the Study**

#### **19.3.1 Reflections on the research process and methodology.**

From a personal perspective, the adoption of a combined constructivist grounded theory and narrative inquiry took me on a research journey of discovery into fields and subfields of knowledge about which I had little previous knowledge. The methodology I adopted was very demanding, sometimes mentally draining, and as complex as the learning process through



which the participants develop their beliefs and approaches to teach games and team sports. However, using this methodology provided the insight and deep knowledge I was looking for. It helped me to learn to listen to the data and think about it both deeply and critically, but at the same time, it taught me to listen and understand each participant as an individual. While CGT, through its meticulous process of data analysis, helped me find common aspects within the participants' interviews that allowed a better and deeper understanding of their experiences and what has influenced their beliefs, the use of NI, more specifically the process of narrative analysis, allowed me to locate those experiences in each participant's personal story. This process of analysis of their individual narratives enriched and gave more sense and meaning to the themes that emerged through the grounded theory process, as I was able to identify important but personal characteristics of the participants' experiences, such as when and where those experiences took place, and who was involved. I think this was central in this study because it emphasised the importance of their personal stories, but at the same time, allowed to find commonalities in the development of their beliefs and approaches that contributed to a better understanding of the many aspects influencing teachers' and coaches' beliefs and approaches towards games and team sports teaching.

#### **19.4 Implications and future research**

This study was undertaken in two schools with a small number of participants in New Zealand to provide deep insight and understanding of the participants' experiences, development and the influence of socio-cultural and institutional context. Connecting the findings to relevant literature on physical education teacher development and socialisation builds on knowledge of these processes and increases the significance of the study. The findings are specific to the context where this study took place, but they provide an important contribution to knowledge and understanding of the ongoing and complex factors influencing

the development of teachers' and coaches' beliefs and approaches. Having a small sample provided rich knowledge and a deep understanding of the participants' development of beliefs over their lives.

Looking at the potential for generalisability, "Qualitative research does lack generalizability when it is understood only through one particular type of generalizability, that is, statistical-probabilistic generalizability" (Smith, 2018, p.138). Thus, having a smaller sample is characteristic of the methodology and reflects the aim of the study. I believe that this is a strength of this research rather than a weakness. As Lewis et al. (2014) commented:

Qualitative research cannot be generalised on a statistical basis – it is not the prevalence of particular views or experiences, not the extent of their location within parts of the sample, about which inferences can be drawn. Nor, of course, is this the objective of qualitative research. Rather, the value of qualitative research is in revealing the breadth and nature of the phenomena under study. (p. 351)

Instead of looking at the generalisability of the study, I looked at how the results of the findings were transferable to other situations and contexts. As it is shown in the literature, transferability is another type of generalisation that might be pursued in qualitative research (Tracy 2010), which is sometimes also known as inferential generalisation (Lewis et al. 2014). The question here is not "If Context A and Context B are congruent and fit", but rather 'To what extent are these results transferable to other settings?'" (Smith, 2018, pp. 140-141). Reflecting on this research, I believe this study provided rich information that allows reasonable transferability to other situations and contexts.

In qualitative research that adopts an interpretive stance, the researcher and the researched subject cannot be seen as separate from each other (Charmaz, 2014). I recognise

that my own beliefs and previous experiences could be seen as a limitation regarding the influence I had during the data analysis and consequently the emergent findings. However, this was a strength of this study as it became crucial throughout the thesis to be reflexive and guarantee that the process of analysis was rigorous. Thus, member checking (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) was pivotal to achieving this. “Member checks, or what is sometimes also termed ‘respondent or participant validation’, involve the participants of a project assessing the trustworthiness of research in terms of validating the credibility of qualitative data and results” (Smith & McGannon, 2018, p.103). The participant validation is usually done by first going back to the data (for example, interview transcripts) and/or results (for example, emergent themes or categories), and then returning to the participants and ask them to give their opinion on whether the data are accurate and the results truthfully reflect their experiences (Smith & McGannon, 2018).

Similar studies conducted in different contexts in New Zealand or other countries would provide deeper insight into the influence of social, cultural and institutional context on physical education teacher development. If conducted on games teaching with a focus on GBA, these studies would make a valuable contribution to knowledge about how social and cultural contexts influence the interpretation and uptake of GBA at a global level.

This study also provided insight into the relevance of PETE programmes to the “experiential continuum” and in the development of teachers and coaches’ beliefs about teaching and coaching. Similar studies could provide more information about the influence of physical education and coach education programmes on the beliefs and practice of their graduates. Focusing such studies on GBA or other pedagogical innovation could make a valuable contribution to knowledge about how physical education teacher education and sport coaching education programmes promoting GBA, and other innovation, in Universities could better consider this experience as part of a learning continuum.

I found the combined constructivist grounded theory and narrative inquiry methodology demanding, but its rigorous inductive approach provided the detailed insight I was looking for and offers the same advantage for other studies with similar aims. There is a limited number of empirical studies that combine grounded theory and narrative inquiry methodologies in the physical education or sport coaching fields but more studies adopting these methodologies would be very valuable as they would provide useful accounts of individuals' experiences as well as contribute to find commonalities across different contexts.

Given the results of this study I suggest that there is a need for more studies that provide a detailed understanding of how teachers' and coaches' beliefs about teaching and coaching are developed over their lives, and how this influences how they teach and coach. This research can move beyond a narrow and simplistic conception of the development of teachers' and coaches' beliefs in these two fields. The ideal outcome envisioned for such studies would be for the findings to result in modification and generation of further research on how teachers and coaches develop their beliefs and approaches as a continuous process of learning throughout their lives.

## References

- Aguiar, B. C., & Light, R. (2015). Self-directed learning of TGfU and the influence of mentor teachers during practicum in Portugal. In Edited Proceedings of the 29th International ACHPER conference: *Values into Action – A Brighter Future*, (pp. 197–205). Adelaide, South Australia.
- Aguiar, B. C., & Light, R. (2016). A challenge to the idea of an authentic version of a Game Based Approach. In J. Bruce & C. North (Eds.), *2015 Game Sense for teachers and coaches conference: Proceedings*, (pp. 15-27), Christchurch, 19-20 November, 2015.
- Alkin, M. C. (1992). *Encyclopaedia of Educational Research*, Volume 4, (6th Edition), New York. Simon and Schuster, Macmillan.
- Al-Ruwaih, M. E. (2005). *Raising standards in initial teacher training in physical education for primary schools: a comparative analysis between Kuwait and England* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Liverpool John Moores University database.
- Amsteus, M. (2014). The validity of divergent grounded theory method. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 13, 71-87.
- Anderson, J. R., Reder, L. M., & Simon, H. A. (1996). Situated learning and education. *Educational Researcher*, 25(4), 5-11. doi:10.2307/1176775
- Annells, M. (1996). Grounded theory method: Philosophical perspectives, paradigm of inquiry, and postmodernism. *Qualitative health research*, 6(3), 379-393.
- Appleby, J., Hunt, L., & Jacob, M. (1994). *Telling the truth about history*. New York: W.W Norton.

- Aristotle (350 B.C.). *Poetics* (S. H. Butcher, Trans., 2008). New York, NY: Cosimo.
- Armour, K., & Jones, R. (1998). *Physical Education Teachers' Lives and Careers*. London: Falmer.
- Armour, K., Quennerstedt, M., Chambers, F., Makopoulou, K., Örebro universitet, & Institutionen för hälsovetenskap och medicin. (2017). What is “effective” CPD for contemporary physical education teachers? A deweyan framework. *Sport, Education and Society*, 22(7), 799-811. doi:10.1080/13573322.2015.1083000
- Ashton, P. T. (1990). Editorial. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 44(1), 2.
- Ashton, P. T., & Webb, R. B. (1986). *Making a difference: Teachers' sense of efficacy and student achievement*. New York: Longman.
- Azzarito, L., & Ennis, C. D. (2003). A sense of connection: Toward social constructivist physical education. *Sport, Education and Society*, 8(2), 179-197.
- Bailey, D. M., & Jackson, J. M. (2003). Qualitative data analysis: Challenges and dilemmas related to theory and method. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 57, 57-65.
- Bailey, D. M., & Jackson, J. M. (2005). The occupation of household financial management among lesbian couples. *Journal of Occupational Science*, 12, 57-68.
- Bailey, R. (2005). Evaluating the relationship between physical education, sport and social inclusion. *Education Review* 57(1), 71–90.
- Bailey, R., Morley, D., & Dismore, H. (2009). Talent development in physical education: a national survey of policy and practice in England. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 14(1), 59-72.

- Bidell, T. (1988). Vygotsky, Piaget and the dialectic of development. *Human Development*, 31, 329–348.
- Billingham, M. (2007). Sociological perspectives. In B. Stretch & M. Whitehouse (Eds.), *Health and Social Care* (pp. 301–334). Oxford, UK: Heinemann.
- Blumer, J. (1969). *Symbolic interactionism: Perspective and method*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Borer, M. I., & Fontana, A. (2012). Postmodern trends: Expanding the horizons of interviewing practices and epistemologies. In J. F. Gubrium, J. A. Holstein, A. B. Marvasti & K. D. McKinney (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of interview research: The complexity of the craft* (2nd ed.), (pp. 45-60). Los Angeles: Sage.
- Bourdieu, P. (1977). *Outline of a theory of practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bourdieu, P. (1984). *Distinction: a social critique of the judgement of taste*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bourdieu, P. (1986). *Distinction: A social critique of the judgement of taste*. London: Routledge.
- Bourdieu, P. (1990). *In other words: Essays towards a reflexive sociology*. (M. Adamson, Trans.). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Bourdieu, P. (1992). *The logic of practice* (R. Nice, Trans.). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Bourdieu, P. (2000). *Pascalian meditations*. (Cambridge, Polity Press).
- Bourdieu, P., & Wacquant, L. J. D. (1992). *An invitation to reflexive sociology*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

- Bowes, M., & Bruce, J. (2011). Curriculum liquefaction (shifting sands) in senior school physical education in New Zealand: Critical pedagogical approaches and dilemmas. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Health, Sport and Physical Education*, 2(3-4), 17-33.
- Brewer, J. D. (2000). *Ethnography: Understanding social research*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.
- Brookhart, S. M., & Freeman, D. J. (1992). Characteristics of entering teacher candidates. *Review of Educational Research*, 62, 37-60.
- Brouwer, C. N., & Korthagen, F. (2005). Can teacher education make a difference? *American Educational Research Journal*, 42, 153–224. doi:10.3102/00028312042001153
- Brown, C. A., & Cooney, T. J. (1982). Research on teacher education: A philosophical orientation. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 15(4), 13-18.
- Bruner, J. (1986). *Actual minds, possible worlds*. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA.
- Bruner, J. (1987). *Actual minds, possible worlds*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bruner, J. (1991). The narrative construction of reality. *Critical Inquiry*, 18, 1-21.
- Bruner, J. (1996). *The culture of education*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Bruner, J. (2004). Life as narrative. *Social Research: An International Quarterly*, 71, 691-710.
- Bryant, A., & Charmaz, K. (2007). Grounded theory in historical perspective: An epistemological account. In A. Bryant & K. Charmaz (Eds.), *The sage handbook of methodological innovation in social sciences* (pp.31-57). London: Sage.
- Bryant, A., & Charmaz, K. (2011). Grounded theory. *The SAGE Handbook of Innovation in Social Research METHODS*, Los Angeles et al.: SAGE, pp. 205-227.



- Bryman, A. (2001). *Social Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bullough, R. V. (2001). *Uncertain lives: Children of hope, teachers of promise*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Bullough, R.V., & Pinnegar, S. (2001). Guidelines for quality autobiographical forms of self-study research. *Educational Researcher*, 30(3), 13–21.  
doi:10.3102/0013189X030003013
- Bunker, D., & Thorpe, R. (1982). A model for the teaching of games in the secondary schools. *The Bulletin of Physical Education*, 18(1), 5-8.
- Burlingame, M. (1972). Socialization constructs and the teaching of teachers. *Quest*, 18, 40–56.
- Butler, J. (1996). Teachers' responses to Teaching Games for Understanding. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance*, 67, 28-33.
- Calderhead, J., & Robson, M. (1991). Images of teaching: Student teachers' early conceptions of classroom practice. *Teaching & Teacher Education*, 7, 1-8.
- Calderhead, J., & Shorrock, S. B. (2003). *Understanding teacher education: Case studies in the professional development of beginning teachers*. Routledge.
- Campbell, J. P., Daft, R. L., & Hulin, C. L. (1982). *What to study: Generating and developing research questions*. Beverly Hills: Sage.
- Carter, N., Bryant-Lukosius, D., DiCenso, A., Blythe, J., & Neville, A. J. (2014). The use of triangulation in qualitative research. *Oncology Nursing Forum*, 41(5), 545-547.  
doi:10.1188/14.ONF.545-547

- Cassidy, T. (1996). The development of university bursaries physical education (UBPE) - politics and timing. *Journal of Physical Education New Zealand*, 29(2), 4-7.
- Cassidy, T., & Rossi, T. (2006). Situated learning: (re)examining the notion of apprenticeship in coach education. *International Journal of Sport Science and Coaching* 1(3), 235–246.
- Chapman, O. (2006). Classroom practices for context of mathematics word problems. *Educational Studies in Mathematics*, 62(2), 211-230. doi:10.1007/s10649-006-7834-1
- Charmaz, K. (2003). Grounded theory. In J. A. Smith (Ed.), *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods* (pp.81-110). London: Sage.
- Charmaz, K. (2005). Grounded theory in the 21st century: Applications for advancing social justice studies. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed), (pp. 507-535). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: a practical guide through qualitative analysis*. London, UK: Sage.
- Charmaz, K. (2008). Constructionism and the grounded theory. In J. A. Holstein & J. F. Gubrium (Eds.), *Handbook of constructionist research* (pp. 397-412). New York: The Guildford Press.
- Charmaz, K. (2014). *Constructing Grounded Theory* (2nd edition). London, UK: Sage.
- Charmaz, K., & Belgrave, L. L. (2012). Qualitative interviewing and grounded theory analysis. In J. F. Gubrium, J. A. Holstein, A. B. Marvasti & K. D. McKinney (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of interview research: The complexity of the craft* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.), (pp. 347-365). Los Angeles: Sage.

- Chase, S. E. (2005). Narrative inquiry: Multiple lenses, approaches, voices. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.) (pp. 651-679). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Chen, W., & Rovegno, I. (2000). Examination of expert and novice teachers' constructivist-oriented teaching practices using a movement approach to elementary physical education. *Research Quarterly for Exercise & Sport*, 71, 357-372.
- Clandinin, D. J. (2006). Narrative inquiry: A methodology for studying lived experience. *Research Studies in Music Education*, 27, 44-54. doi: 0.1177/1321103X060270010301
- Clandinin, D. J. (2007). *Handbook of narrative inquiry: Mapping a methodology*. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.
- Clandinin, D. J., & Connelly, M. (2000). *Narrative inquiry: Experience and story in qualitative research*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Clandinin, D. J., Pushor, D., & Orr, A. M. (2007). Navigating sites for narrative inquiry. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 58, 21-35.
- Clark, C. M. (1988). Asking the right questions about teacher preparation: Contributions of research on teaching thinking. *Educational Researcher*, 17(2), 5-12.
- Clarke, A. E. (2005). *Situational Analysis: Grounded Theory after the Postmodern Turn*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Clarke, A. E., Friese, C., & Washburn, R. S. (2017). *Situational analysis: grounded theory after the interpretive turn*. Sage Publications.

- Cobb, P. (1996). Where is the mind? A coordination of sociocultural and cognitive perspectives. In C.T. Fosnot (Ed.), *Constructivism: Theory, perspectives and practice*, (pp.34-52). New York, London: Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Coghlan, J., & Webb, I. M. (1990). *Sport and British Politics Since 1960*. Falmer Press, London.
- Cohn, F. G., Shapiro, J., Lie, D. A., Boker, J., Stephens, F., & Leung, L. A. (2009). Interpreting values conflicts experienced by obstetrics-gynecology clerkship students using reflective writing. *Academic Medicine*, 84, 587-596. doi: 10.1097/ACM.0b013e31819f6ecc
- Coles, R. (1978). *Women of crisis: Lives of struggle and hope*. New York: Delacorte Press.
- Connelly, F. M., & Clandinin, D. J. (1990). Stories of experience and narrative inquiry. *Educational Researcher*, 19, 2-14. doi: 10.3102/0013189X019005002
- Connelly, F. M., & Clandinin, D. J. (2006). Narrative inquiry. In J. Green, G. Camilli & P. Elmore (Eds.), *Handbook of complementary methods in education research* (pp. 375-385). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. L. (1990). Grounded theory research: Procedures, canons, and evaluative criteria. *Qualitative Sociology*, 13(1), 3-21.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Boston: Pearson.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing Among Five Approaches* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. Sage.
- Culpan, I. (2005). *Physical education: What is it all about? The muddled puzzle*. Commissioned paper for the Ministry of Education.
- Culpan, I. (2008). Physical education and the New Zealand curriculum: Maximising the opportunity. *New Zealand Physical Educator*, 41(3), 51.
- Curry, C. (2012). *Teachers' experiences of the implementation of Teaching Games for Understanding in an Australian Independent secondary school* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). University of Ballarat, Melbourne, Australia.
- Curry, C., & Light, R. L. (2014). The influence of school context on the implementation of TGfU across a secondary school physical education department. In R. L. Light, J. Quay, S. Harvey & A. Mooney (Eds.), *Contemporary developments in games teaching* (pp. 118-133). London and New York: Routledge.
- Curtner-Smith, M. D. (1997). The impact of biography, teacher education, and organizational socialization on the perspectives and practices of first-year physical education teachers: Case studies of recruits with coaching orientations. *Sport, Education and Society*, 2(1), 73-94.
- Curtner-Smith, M. D. (1999). The more things change the more they stay the same: Factors influencing teachers' interpretations and delivery of the National Curriculum Physical Education. *Sport Education and Society*, 4, 75–97. doi:10.1080/1357332990040106
- Curtner-Smith, M. D. (2001). The occupational socialization of a first-year physical education teacher with a teaching orientation. *Sport Education and Society*, 6, 81–105.

- Curtner-Smith, M. D. (2009). Breaking the cycle of non-teaching physical education teachers: Lessons to be learned from the occupational socialization literature. In L. D. Housner, M. Metzler, P. G. Schempp, et al. (Eds.), *Historic Traditions and Future Directions of Research on Teaching and Teacher Education in Physical Education* (pp. 221–225). Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology.
- Curtner-Smith, M., Hastie, P., & Kinchin, G. D. (2008). Influence of occupational socialization on beginning teachers' interpretation and delivery of sport education. *Sport Education and Society*, 13, 97–117. doi:10.1080/13573320701780779
- Cushion, C. (2007). Modelling the complexities of the coaching process. *International Journal of Sports Science and Coaching*, 2(4), 395–401.
- Cushion, C., Armour, K. M., & Jones, R. L. (2003). Coach education and continuing professional development: Experience and learning to coach. *Quest*, 55, 215–230.
- Cutcliffe, J. R. (2003). Reconsidering reflexivity: Introducing the case for intellectual entrepreneurship. *Qualitative health research*, 13(1), 136-148.
- Darlin-Hammond, L. Chung, R., & Frelow, F. (2002). Variation in teacher preparation: How well do different pathways prepare teachers to teach? *Journal of Teacher Education*, 53(4), 286-302. doi: 10.1177/0022487102053004002
- Davidson, F. (1996). *Principles of statistical data handling*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Davis, B., & Sumara, D. (1997). Cognition, complexity, and teacher education. *Harvard educational review*, 67(1), 105-126.
- Davis, B., & Sumara, D. (2003). Why aren't they getting this? Working through the regressive myths of constructivist pedagogy. *Teaching Education*, 14(2), 123–40.

- Davis, B., Sumara, D., & Luce-Kapler, R. (2000). *Engaging minds: Learning and teaching in a complex world*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dawson, C. (2005). *A practical guide to research methods: a user-friendly manual for mastering research techniques and projects* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Oxford, U.K: Howtobooks.
- de Aguiar, B. C., & Light, R. L. (2018). Physical education teachers' and sport coaches' dispositions toward games teaching and the influence of GBA. *Graduate Journal of Sport, Exercise & Physical Education Research*, 7, 1-10.
- De Bono, E. (2017). *Six thinking hats*. Penguin UK.
- Deenihan, J. T., & MacPhail, A. (2017). The influence of organizational socialization in preservice teachers' delivery of sport education. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 36(4), 477-484. doi:10.1123/jtpe.2016-0218
- Denzin, N. K. (1978). *Sociological Methods*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). *Handbook of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2000). *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.), Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Department for Culture, Media and Sport (2000). *A Sporting Future for All*. Department for Culture, Media and Sport, London.
- Department for Culture, Media and Sport/Strategy Unit (2002). *Game Plan: A Strategy for Delivering Government's Sport and Physical Activity Objectives*, Department for Culture, Media and Sport, London.

Department of National Heritage (1995). *Sport: Raising the Game*, Department of National Heritage, London.

DeVries, R. (2000). Vygotsky, Piaget, and education: A reciprocal assimilation of theories and educational practices. *New ideas in Psychology*, 18(2-3), 187-213.

Dewar, A. (1989). Recruitment in Physical Education Teaching: Toward a Critical Approach. In T. Templin & P. Schempp (Eds.), *Socialization into Physical Education: Learning to Teach* (pp. 39–58). Indianapolis, IN: Benchmark Press.

Dewar, A., & Lawson, H. (1984). The Subjective Warrant and Recruitment into Physical Education, *Quest* 36: 15–25.

Dewey, J. (1896). The reflex arc concept in psychology. *Psychological Review*, 3, 357–370.

Dewey, J. (1916/1997). *Democracy and education: An introduction to the philosophy of education*. Repr. New York: The Macmillan Company.

Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think*. Boston: D. C. Heath.

Dewey, J. (1934). Having an experience. *Art as experience*, 36-59.

Dewey, J. (1938). *Experience and education*. New York, NY: Collier Books.

Dewey, J. (1939). Experience, knowledge and value: A rejoinder. In P.A. Schilpp (Ed.), *The Philosophy of John Dewey* (pp. 515-608). Evanston, IL: Northwestern University Press.

Dewey, J. (1981). *The Later Works of John Dewey, 1925–53*. (J. A. Boydston, Ed.). Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.

DfEE (1992). Circular 9/92.

DfEE (1997). Circular 10/97.



- Donovan, M., Jones, G., & Hardman, K. (2006). Physical education and sport in england: Dualism, partnership and delivery provision/Sport und sportunterricht in england: Dualismus, partnerschaft und strategische umsetzung/Tjelesni odgoj i sport u engleskoj: Dualizam, partnerstvo i uvjeti za realizaciju. *Kinesiology*, 38(1), 16.
- Doolittle, S. A., & Schwager, S. (1989). Socialization and inservice teacher education. In T. J. Templin, & P. G. Schempp (eds.), *Socialization into physical education: Learning to teach*, (pp. 105–121). Indianapolis, IN: Benchmark Press.
- Doolittle, S. A., Dodds, P., & Placek, J. H. (1993). Persistence of beliefs about teaching during formal training of preservice teachers. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 12(4), 355-365. doi:10.1123/jtpe.12.4.355
- Dowling, F. (2011). Are PE teacher identities fit for postmodern schools or are they clinging to modernist notions of professionalism? A case study of Norwegian PE teacher students' emerging professional identities. *Sport, Education and Society*, 16, 201–222.
- Drew, S. (2005). The Delta Factor: Storying survival and the disjunctive between public narratives and personal stories of life after cancer. *Storytelling, Self, Society*, 1, 76-102. doi: 10.1080/15505340509490267
- Drew, S. (2007). Having cancer changed my life, and changed my life forever: Survival, illness legacy and service provision following cancer in childhood. *Chronic Illness*, 3, 278-294. doi: 10.1177/1742395307085236
- Duffy, P., Hartley, H., Bales, J., Crespo, M., Dick, F., Vardhan, D., Nordmann, L., & Curado, J. (2011). Sport coaching as a 'profession': challenges and future directions. *International Journal of Coaching Science*, 5(2), 93-122.

- Dunne, C. (2011). The place of the literature review in grounded theory research. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 14(2), 111-124.
- Dyson, B. (2005). Integrating cooperative learning and tactical games models: Focusing on social interactions and decision-making. In L. L. Griffin & J. I. Butler (Eds.), *Teaching Games for Understanding: Theory, Research, and Practice* (pp. 149-168). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Ennis, C. (2000). Canaries in the coal mine: Responding to disengaged students using theme-based curricula. *Quest*, 52, 119–130.
- Erikson, E. H. (1981). The galilean sayings and the sense of "I". *The Yale Review*, 70(3), 321.
- Erickson, K., Bruner, W. M., MacDonald, J. D., & Cote, J. (2008). Gaining insight into actual and preferred sources of coaching knowledge. *International Journal of Sports Science and Coaching*, 3(4), 527-538.
- Evans, J. R. (2011). *Elite Rugby Coaches' Interpretation and Use of Game Sense in Australia and New Zealand: An Examination of Coaches' Habitus, Learning and Development*. (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). University of Sydney, Sydney.
- Evans, J. R. (2012). Elite level rugby coaches' interpretation and use of games sense. *Asian Journal of Exercise and Sports Science*, 3, 85 – 97.
- Evans, J. R. (2014). The nature and importance of coach-player relationships in the uptake of game sense by Elite Rugby coaches in Australia and New Zealand. In R. Light, J. Quay, S. Harvey, & A. Mooney (Eds.), *Contemporary developments in games teaching* (pp. 133– 145). London: Routledge.

- Evans, J., Penney, D., & Bryant, A. (1993). Improving the quality of physical education? The Education Reform Act, 1988, and physical education in England and Wales. *Quest*, 45(3), 321-338.
- Feiman-Nemser, S., & Folden, R. E. (1984). The cultures of teaching. In M.C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.) (pp. 505–526). New York, NY: Macmillan.
- Fernández-Balboa, J. M. (2009). Bio-pedagogical self-reflection in PETE: reawakening the ethical conscience and purpose in pedagogy and research. *Sport, Education and Society*, 14(2), 147-163.
- Fessler, R., & Christensen, J. (1992). *Teacher career cycle: Understanding and guiding the professional development of teachers*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Finlay, L. (2002). “Outing” the researcher: The provenance, process, and practice of reflexivity. *Qualitative Health Research*, 12(4), 531-545.
- Flintoff, A. (2003). The school sport co-ordinator programme: Changing the role of the physical education teacher? *Sport, Education and Society* 8(2), 231–250.
- Floersch, J., Longhofer, J. L., Kranke, D., & Townsend, L. (2010). Integrating thematic, grounded theory and narrative analysis: A case study of adolescent psychotropic treatment. *Qualitative Social Work*, 9, 407-425. doi: 10.1177/1473325010362330
- Forrest, G., Webb, P., & Pearson, P. (2006). *Teaching games for understanding (TGfU): A model for pre-service teachers*. Conference proceedings for ICHPER 1st Oceania Congress, Wellington New Zealand. Retrieved from [http://www.penz.org/i/memo\\_022406.pdf](http://www.penz.org/i/memo_022406.pdf)

- Fosnot, C. T. (1996). Constructivism: A psychological theory of learning. In C.T. Fosnot (Ed.), *Constructivism: Theory, perspectives and practice* (pp. 103–119). New York, London: Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Foucault, M. (1976). *History of sexuality: Vol. I. An introduction*. New York: Pantheon.
- Fox, R. (2001). Constructivism examined. *Oxford Review of Education*, 27(1), 23.
- Franzosi, R. (2004). *From words to numbers: Narrative, data, and social science*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Garforth, F. W. (1966). *John Dewey Selected Educational Writings*. London: Heinemann.
- Garrett, R., & Wrench, A. (2007). Physical experiences: primary student teachers' conceptions of sport and physical education. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 12(1), 23-42.
- Geertz, C. (1973). *The interpretation of cultures: Selected essays*. New York: Basic Books.
- Geertz, C. (1983). *Local knowledge: Further essays in interpretive anthropology*. New York: Basic Books.
- Gentles, S. J., Jack, S. M., Nicholas, D. B., & McKibbin, K. (2014). Critical Approach to Reflexivity in Grounded Theory. *The Qualitative Report*, 19(44), 1-14.
- Gerring, J. (2007). Is there a (viable) crucial-case method? *Comparative Political Studies*, 40(3), 231-253.
- Gilbert, W. D., & Trudel, P. (2001). Learning to coach through experience: Reflection in model youth sport coaches. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 21(1), 16-34.  
doi:10.1123/jtpe.21.1.16

- Gilbert, W. D., & Trudel, P. (2006). The coach as a reflective practitioner. In: R.L. Jones (Ed.), *The sports coach as educator: reconceptualising sports coaching* (p. 114- 127). London: Routledge.
- Glaser, B. G. (1978). *Theoretical sensitivity: advances in the methodology of grounded theory*. Mill Valley, CA: Sociology Press.
- Glaser, B. G. (1992). *Emergence vs forcing: Basics of grounded theory analysis*. Mill Valley, CA: Sociology Press.
- Glaser, B. G., & Holton, J. (2007). Remodelling grounded theory. *Historical Social Research/Historische Sozialforschung. Supplement*, (19), 47-68.
- Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1965). *Awareness of dying*. Chicago: Aldine.
- Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The Discovery of Grounded Theory*. Chicago: Aldine.
- Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1968). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. London: Weidenfeld and Nicolson.
- Goodman, J. (1988). Constructing a practical philosophy of teaching: A study of preservice teachers' professional perspectives. *Teaching & Teacher Education*, 4, 121-137.
- Gould, G. (1934). Motives for entering the teaching profession. *The Elementary School Journal*, 35(2), 95–102.
- Graber, K. (1989). Teaching tomorrow's teachers: Professional socialization as an agent of socialization. In T.J. Templin & P.G. Schempp (Eds.), *Socialization into physical education: Learning to teach* (pp. 59–80). Indianapolis, IN: Benchmark Press.

- Graber, K. (1991). Studentship in preservice teacher education: A qualitative study of undergraduate students in physical education. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 62(1), 41–51. doi:10.1080/02701367.1991.10607517
- Graber, K. (2001). Research on teaching in physical education. In V. Richardson (ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.) (pp. 491–519). Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.
- Grant, B. C. (1992). Integrating sport into the physical education curriculum in New Zealand secondary schools. *Quest*, 44(3), 304-316. doi:10.1080/00336297.1992.10484057
- Grant, B. M., & Giddings, L. S. (2002). Making sense of methodologies: A paradigm framework for the novice researcher. *Contemporary Nurse*, 13(1), 10-28.
- Gray, E. D. (2011). Journeys towards the professionalisation of coaching: dilemmas, dialogues and decisions along the global pathway. *International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 4(1), 4-19.
- Green, M. (2004). Changing policy priorities for sport in England: The emergence of elite sport development as a key policy concern. *Leisure Studies*, 23(4), 365-385. doi:10.1080/0261436042000231646
- Gréhaigne, J. F., Godbout, P., & Bouthier, D. (1999). The foundations of tactics and strategy in team sports. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 18, 159-174.
- Gréhaigne, J.F., Richard, J.F., & Griffin, L. L. (2005). *Teaching and learning team sports and games*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Griffin, L. L., & Butler, J. (2005). *Teaching games for understanding: Theory, research, and practice*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

- Griffin, L. L., Brooker, R., & Patton, K. (2005). Working towards legitimacy: Two decades of Teaching Games for Understanding. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 10, 213-224.
- Groundwater-Smith, S., Mitchell, J., & Mockler, N. (2007). *Learning in the middle years: more than a transition*. South Melbourne: Thomson.
- Guba, E., & Lincoln, Y. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 105-117). London: Sage.
- Hammersley, M., & Atkinson, P. (1995). *Ethnography: Principles in practice*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Hammersley, M., & Atkinson, P. (2007). *Ethnography: Principles in practice* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). London; New York;: Routledge.
- Harvey, O. J. (1986). Belief systems and attitudes toward the death penalty and other punishments. *Journal of Psychology*, 54, 143-159.
- Harvey, S., & Light, R. L. (2015). Questioning for learning in games-based approaches to teaching and coaching. *Asia Pacific Journal of Health, Sport and Physical Education*, 6(2), 175-190.
- Hassanin, R., & Light, R. (2014). The influence of cultural context on rugby coaches' beliefs about coaching. *Sports Coaching Review*, 3(2), 132-144. doi:10.1080/21640629.2015.1013751
- Hassanin, R., Light, R., & Macfarlane, A. (2018). Developing “good buggers”: global implications of the influence of culture on New Zealand club rugby coaches’ beliefs and practice, *Sport in Society*, 21(8), 1223-1235. doi: 10.1080/17430437.2018.1443598

- Hay, P. J., Tinning, R., & Engstrom, C. (2015). Assessment as pedagogy: A consideration of pedagogical work and the preparation of kinesiology professionals. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 20(1), 31–44. doi:10.1080/17408989.2013.788145
- Henry, I. P. (1993). *The Politics of Leisure Policy*, Macmillan, Basingstoke.
- Henry, I. P. (2001). *The Politics of Leisure Policy* (2nd ed.). Palgrave, Houndmills.
- Herrera, A., Dahlblom, K., Dahlgren, L., & Kullgren, G. (2006). Pathways to suicidal behaviour among adolescent girls in Nicaragua. *Social Science & Medicine*, 62, 805-814. doi:10.1016/j.socscimed.2005.06.055
- Hood, J. (2007). Orthodoxy versus power: The defining traits of grounded theory. In A. Bryant & K. Charmaz (Eds.), *Handbook of grounded theory* (pp. 151-164). London: Sage.
- Hopper, T., & Bell, R. (2001). Can we play that game again? *Strategies*, 14 (6) 23 - 27.
- Houlihan, B. (1991). *The Government and Politics of Sport*. Routledge, London.
- Houlihan, B. (1997). *Sport, Policy and Politics: A Comparative Analysis*. Routledge, London, New York.
- Houlihan, B. (2000). Sporting excellence, schools and sports development: The politics of crowded policy spaces. *European Physical Education Review* 6(2), 171–193.
- Houlihan, B., & Green, M. (2006). The changing status of school sport and physical education: Explaining policy change. *Sport, Education and Society*, 11(1), 73-92. doi:10.1080/13573320500453495
- Howell, K. E. (2013). *An introduction to the philosophy of methodology*. Los Angeles: Sage. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.



- Hutchinson, G. E. (1993). Prospective teachers' perspectives on teaching physical education: An interview study on the recruitment phase of teacher socialization. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 12, 344–354.
- Jackson, J. E. (1990). "I am a fieldnote": Fieldnotes as a symbol of professional identity. In R. Sanjek (Ed.), *Fieldnotes: The makings of anthropology* (pp. 3-33).
- Jarrett, K., & Harvey, S. (2014). Recent trends in research literature one game-based approaches to teaching and coaching games. In R. Light; J. Quay; S. Harvey & A. Mooney (Eds.), *Contemporary developments in games teaching* (pp.87-102). Hoboken: Taylor and Francis.
- Johnson, S. (2005). *Everything bad is good for you: How today's popular culture is actually making us smarter*. New York: Riverhead.
- Jones, E. (2015). Transferring skill from practice to the match in rugby through Game Sense. *Healthy + Active Magazine*, 22(2/3), 56-58.
- Jones, R. L. (2006). *The sports coach as educator: Re-conceptualising sports coaching*. Abingdon, [England]; New York: Routledge.
- Jowett, S., & Poczwardowski, A. (2007). Understanding the Coach-Athlete Relationship. In S. Jowette & D. Lavallee (Eds.), *Social Psychology in Sport* (pp. 3-14). Champaign, IL, US: Human Kinetics.
- Kay, W. (2003). Physical education, RIP? *British Journal of Teaching Physical Education*, 34(4), pp. 6-9.
- Kelle, U. (2007). "Emergence" vs. "forcing" of empirical data? A crucial problem of "grounded theory" reconsidered. *Forum: Qualitative. Social Research*, 6, 2.

- Kenny, M., & Fourie, R. (2014). Tracing the history of grounded theory methodology: From formation to fragmentation. *Qualitative Report*, 19(52), 1-10.
- Kenny, M., & Fourie, R. (2015). Contrasting Classic, Straussian, and Constructivist Grounded Theory: Methodological and Philosophical Conflicts. *The Qualitative Report*, 20(8), 1270-1289. Retrieved from <http://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol20/iss8/9>
- Kidman, L. (2005). *Athlete-centred coaching: Developing inspired and inspiring people*. Christchurch, NZ: Innovative Print Communications.
- Kidman, L., Hadfield, D., & Thorpe, R. (2011). *Athlete-Centred Coaching: Developing Inspired and Inspiring People*. Christchurch: Christchurch Innovative Print Communications.
- Kirk, D. (1992). *Defining physical education: The social construction of a school subject in postwar Britain*. London: Falmer.
- Kirk, D. (2005). Physical education, youth sport and lifelong participation: the importance of early learning experiences. *European Physical Education Review*, 11(3), 239-255. doi:10.1177/1356336x05056649
- Kirk, D. (2006). Sport education, critical pedagogy, and learning theory: Towards an intrinsic justification for physical education and youth sport. *Quest*, 58, 255–264.
- Kirk, D., & Kinchin, G. (2003). Situated learning as a theoretical framework for sport education. *European Physical Education Review*, 9(3), 221-235. doi:10.1177/1356336X030093002
- Kirk, D., & Macdonald, D. (1998). Situated learning in physical education. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 17, 376–387. doi:10.1123/jtpe.17.3.376

- Kirk, D., & MacPhail, A. (2002). Teaching Games for Understanding and situated learning: Rethinking the Bunker and Thorpe model. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 21, 177-192.
- Kirk, D., & Tinning, R. (1992, April). *Physical education pedagogical work as praxis*, paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA, 20–24.
- Knapp, B. (1963). *Skill in sport*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2009). *InterViews: learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing* (Vol. 2). Los Angeles: Sage Publications.
- Lacey, C. (2012). *The Socialization of Teachers (RLE Edu N)*. Routledge.
- Lal, S., Suto, M., & Ungar, M. (2012). Examining the potential of combining the methods of grounded theory and narrative inquiry: A comparative analysis. *The Qualitative Report* 17(41), 1-22.
- Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. New York, US; Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1999). Legitimate peripheral participation. *Learners, learning and assessment, London: The Open University*, 83-89.
- Lawson, H. A. (1983). Toward a model of teacher socialization in physical education: Entry into schools, teachers' role orientations, and longevity in teaching (part 2). *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 3, 3–15.
- Lawson, H. A. (1986). Occupational socialization and the design of teacher education programs. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 5, 107–116.

- Lawson, H. A. (1989). From rookie to veteran: workplace conditions in physical education and induction into the profession. In T.J. Templin & P.G. Schempp (Eds.), *Socialization into physical education: Learning to teach* (pp. 145–164). Indianapolis, IN: Benchmark Press.
- Lee, H. M., & Curtner-Smith, M. (2011). Impact of occupational socialization on the perspectives and practices of sport pedagogy doctoral students. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 30, 296–313.
- Lempert, L. B. (2010). Asking questions of the data: Memo writing in the grounded theory tradition. In A. Bryant & K. Charmaz (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of grounded theory* (Paperback ed.) (pp. 245-264). Los Angeles: Sage.
- Lewis, J., *et al.* (2014). Generalizing from qualitative research. In J. Ritchie, J. Lewis, C. McNaughton Nicholls & R. Ormston (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.) (pp. 347–366). London: Sage.
- Light, R. (2002). The social nature of games: Australian preservice primary teachers' first experiences of teaching games for understanding. *European Physical Education Review*, 8(3), 286-304. doi:10.1177/1356336X020083007
- Light, R. (2003). The joy of learning: Emotion and learning in games through TGfU. *Journal of Physical Education New Zealand*. 36 (1), 93 – 109.
- Light, R. (2004). Coaches' experiences of game sense: Opportunities and challenges. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 9(2), 115-131. doi:10.1080/1740898042000294949
- Light, R. (2006). Situated learning in an Australian surf club. *Sport, Education and Society*, 11, 155-172.

- Light, R. (2008). Complex learning theory-its epistemology and its assumptions about learning: Implications for physical education. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 27(1), 21-37. doi:10.1123/jtpe.27.1.21
- Light, R. (2011). Opening up learning theory to social theory in research on sport and physical education through a focus on practice. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 16(4), 369-382. doi:10.1080/17408989.2010.535197
- Light, R. (2013). *Game Sense: Pedagogy for performance, participation and enjoyment*. London: Routledge.
- Light, R. (2017). *Positive pedagogy for sport coaching: Athlete-centred coaching for individual sports*. Abingdon, Oxon;New York, NY;: Routledge is an imprint of the Taylor & Francis Group, an Informa Business.
- Light, R. L., & Evans, J. R. (2013). Dispositions of elite-level Australian rugby coaches towards game sense: characteristics of their coaching habitus. *Sport, Education and Society*, 18(3), 407-423.
- Light, R., & Evans, J. R. (2018). *Stories of Indigenous Success in Australian Sport: Journeys to the AFL and NRL*. Springer.
- Light, R., & Fawns, R. (2001). The thinking body: Constructivist approaches to games teaching in physical education. *Melbourne Studies in Education*, 42, 69-87.
- Light, R., & Fawns, R. (2003). The embodied mind: blending speech and action in games teaching through TGfU. *Quest*, 55, 161-176.
- Light, R., & Harvey, S. (2017). Positive pedagogy for sport coaching. *Sport, Education and Society*, 22(2), 271-287. doi: 10.1080/13573322.2015.1015977

- Light, R., & Kentel, J. A., Kehler, M., & Atkinson, M. (2010). Soft pedagogy for a hard sport: Disrupting hegemonic masculinity in high school rugby through feminist-informed pedagogy. In M. Kehler & M. Atkinson (Eds.) *Boys' bodies* (pp. 133-154). Peter Lang Publishers.
- Light, R., & Kirk, D. (2000). High school rugby, the body and the reproduction of hegemonic masculinity. *Sport Education and Society*, 5(2), 163-176.
- Light, R., & Tan, S. (2006). Culture, embodied experience and teachers' development of TGfU in Australia and Singapore. *European Physical Education Review*, 12(1), 99-117.
- Light, R., & Wallian, N. (2008). A constructivist-informed approach to teaching swimming. *Quest*, 60(3), 387-404.
- Light, R., Evans, J., Harvey, S., & Hassanin, R. (2015). *Advances in Rugby Coaching: An Holistic Approach*. London: Routledge.
- Light, R., Quay, J., Harvey, S., & Mooney, A. (2014). *Contemporary developments in games teaching*. Hoboken: Taylor and Francis.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Lortie, D. C. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Macdonald, D. (2003). Curriculum change and the post-modern world: Is the school curriculum-reform movement an anachronism? *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 35(2), 139-149. doi: 10.1080/00220270210157605

- Macdonald, D., & Tinning, R. (1995). Physical Education Teacher Education and the Trend to Proletarianization: A Case Study. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 15, 98–118.
- Maclean, J., & Lorimer, R. (2016). Are coach education programmes the most effective method for coach development? *International Journal of Coaching Science*, 11(1), 71-88.
- Mahlo, F. (1974). *Acte tactique en jeu* [Tactical action in play]. Paris: Vigot.
- Mallett, C., Rossi, T., & Tinning, R. (2008). Relational interdependence between individual agency and affordances in how high performance coaches learn. *International Journal of Physical Education and Sports Coaching*, 21-24.
- Martin, K. (2010). Brain boost: Sport and physical activity enhance children's learning. *The University of Western Australia: Crawley, WA, Australia*.
- Mason, J. (1996). *Qualitative researching*. London: Sage.
- Matanin, M., & Collier, C. (2003). Longitudinal analysis of preservice teachers' beliefs about teaching Physical Education. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 22, 153–168.
- Mauthner, N. S., & Doucet, A. (2003). Reflexive accounts and accounts of reflexivity in qualitative data analysis. *Sociology*, 37(3), 413-431.
- McGhee, G., Marland, G. R., & Atkinson, J. (2007). Grounded theory research: literature reviewing and reflexivity. *Journal of advanced nursing*, 60(3), 334-342.
- McMahon, E., & MacPhail, A. (2007). Learning to teach sport education: The experiences of a pre-service teacher. *European Physical Education Review*, 13(2), 229–246.
- Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: a guide to design and implementation* (Vol. 3). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Ministry of Education (1999). *Health and physical education in the New Zealand curriculum*. Wellington: Learning Media.
- Ministry of Education (2005). *The national education goals and the national administrative guidelines*. Retrieved from <http://www.minedu.govt.nz>
- Ministry of Education (2007). *The New Zealand Curriculum*. Wellington: Learning Media.
- Ministry of Education (2011). *Secondary Teacher Education Qualifications*. Retrieved from [www.teachnz.govt.nz/assets/Uploads/Secondarybookletfinal2011.pdf](http://www.teachnz.govt.nz/assets/Uploads/Secondarybookletfinal2011.pdf)
- Morse, J. M. (1995). The significance of saturation. *Qualitative Health Research*, 5(2), 147-149. doi:10.1177/104973239500500201
- Mosston, M., & Ashworth, S. (2002). *Teaching physical education* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). San Francisco, CA: B. Cummings.
- Mruck, K., & Mey, G. (2010). Grounded theory and reflexivity. In A. Bryant & K. Charmaz (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of grounded theory* (pp. 515-538). London, UK: Sage.
- Munby, H. (1982). The place of teachers' beliefs in research on teacher thinking and decision making, and an alternative methodology. *Instructional science*, 11(3), 201-225.
- Munby, H. (1984). A qualitative approach to the study of a teacher's beliefs. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 21, 27-38.
- Munby, H., Russell, T., & Martin, A. K. (2001). Teachers' knowledge and how it develops. *Handbook of research on teaching*, 4, 877-904.
- Munrow, A.D. (1955). *Pure and applied gymnastics*. London: Arnold.



- Murdoch, E. B. (1990). Physical education and sport: The interface. *New directions in physical education, 1*, 63-77.
- Myers, M. D. (2008). *Qualitative research in business & management*. London; Los Angeles: SAGE.
- Nash, S. C., Sproule, J., & Horton, P. (2008). Sport coaches' perceived role frames and philosophies. *International Journal of Sports Science and Coaching, 3*(4), 539-554.
- Nelson, L. J., Cushion. C. J., & Potrac, P. (2006). Formal, non-formal and informal coach learning: a holistic conceptualisation. *International Journal of Sports Science and Coaching, 1*(3), 247-259.
- Nespor, J. (1987). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching. *Journal of curriculum studies, 19*(4), 317-328.
- Nurrenbern, S. C. (2001). Piaget's theory of intellectual development revisited. *Journal of Chemical Education 78*(8), 1107-1110.
- O'Leary, N. (2016). Learning informally to use the "full version" of teaching games for understanding. *European Physical Education Review 22*(1): 3–22. doi: 10.1177/1356336X15586177
- O'Sullivan M., MacPhail, A., & Tannehill, D. (2009). A career in teaching: Decisions of the heart rather than the head. *Irish Educational Studies 28*(2), 177–191.
- Oakley, B., & Green, M. (2001). Still playing the game at arm's length?: The selective re-investment in British sport, 1995–2000. *Managing Leisure 6*, 74–94.
- Palincsar, A. S. (1998). Social constructivist perspectives on teaching and learning. *Annual Review of Psychology, 49*(1), 345-375.

- Partington, G. (1999). *Teacher Education in England and Wales*. IEA Education and Training Unit.
- Pass, S. (2004). *Parallel Paths to Constructivism: Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky*. Information Age Publishing.
- Patton, M. Q. (1999). Enhancing the quality and credibility of qualitative analysis. *HSR: Health Services Research*, 34(5), pp. 1189-1208.
- Pehkonen, E., & Pietilä, A. (2003). *On relationships between beliefs and knowledge in mathematics education*. Paper presented at the CERME 3: Third conference of the European society for research in mathematics education, Bellaria, Italy.
- Pemmer, G. (2009). Berufswahl Sportlehrer/in. Eine biographische, mehrperspektivische Untersuchung. [Occupational choice of physical education teacher. A biographical investigation from multiple perspectives.] (Master thesis). Retrieved from othes.univie.ac.at/5144/1/2009-05-27\_0207619.pdf
- Penney, D. (2000). Physical education, sporting excellence and educational excellence. *European Physical Education Review* 6(2), 135–150.
- Penney, D., & Evans, J. (1999). *Politics, Policy and Practice in Physical Education*. E. & F. N. Spon, London.
- Penney, D., & Harris, J. (1997). Extra-curricular physical education: More of the same for the more able? *Sport, Education and Society* 2(1), 41–54.
- Phillips, J. (1987). *A man's country? The image of the Pākehā male, a history*. Auckland, New Zealand: Penguin.

- Piaget, J. (1970). Piaget's theory. In P.H. Mussen (Ed.), *Carmichael's manual of child psychology*. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed., Vol. 1) (pp. 703–732). New York: Wiley.
- Piaget, J. (1975/1985). *The Equilibration of Cognitive Structures. The Central Problem of Intellectual Development*. Translated T. Brown (Chicago, IL, University of Chicago Press).
- Pike, S., & Fletcher, T. (2014). A review of research on physical education teacher socialization from 2000-2012. *Revue phénEPS/PHEnex Journal*, 6(1), 1–17.
- Pill, S. (2011). Seizing the moment: Can game sense further inform sport teaching in Australian physical education? *Revue phénEPS/PHEnex Journal* 3(1).
- Pill, S. (Ed.) (2017). *Perspectives on Athlete Centred Coaching*. London & New York: Routledge.
- Pill, S. (Ed.) (2018). *Perspectives on Athlete Centred Coaching*. London: Routledge.
- Pissanos, B.W., & Allison, P.C. (1993). Students' constructs of elementary school physical education. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 64, 425-435.
- Placek, J. (1983). Conceptions of success in teaching: Busy, happy and good. In T. Templin & J. Oslin (Eds.), *Teaching in Physical Education* (pp. 46–56). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetic.
- Polkinghorne, D. E. (1988). *Narrative knowing and the human sciences*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Pooley, J. C. (1972). Professional socialization: A model of the pre-training phase applicable to physical education students. *Quest*, 18, 57–66.

- Pooley, J. C. (1975). The professional socialization of physical education students in the United States and England. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 10, 97–107.
- Proulx, J. (2006). Constructivism: A re-equilibration and clarification of the concepts, and some potential implications for teaching and pedagogy. *Radical Pedagogy*, 8(1), 64-89.
- Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) (1999). *Work in Progress to Develop the School Curriculum*. Materials for Conferences, Seminars and Meetings. Booklet A. London: QCA.
- Quay, J., & Stolz S. A. (2013). Game as context in physical education: a Deweyan philosophical perspective. In R. Light, J. Quay, S. Harvey, et al. (Eds.), *Contemporary developments in games teaching* (pp. 15–28). London and New York: Routledge.
- Raymond, A. M. (1997). Inconsistency between a beginning elementary school teacher's mathematics beliefs and teaching practice. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education*, 28, 550-576.
- Reason, P. (Ed.) (1988). *Human inquiry in action: Developments in new paradigm research*. London: Sage.
- Reinking, D., Labbo, L., & McKenna, M. (2000). From assimilation to accommodation: A developmental framework for integrating digital technologies into literacy research and instruction. *Journal of research in reading*, 23(2), 110-122.
- Richards, K. A. R., & Gaudreault, K. L. (2017). *Teacher socialization in physical education: New perspectives*. Abingdon, Oxon; New York, N.Y.: Routledge is an imprint of the Taylor & Francis Group, an Informa Business.

- Richards, K. A. R., & Templin, T. (2011). The influence of a state mandated induction assistance program on the socialization of a beginning physical education teacher. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 20, 340–357.
- Richards, K. A. R., Eberline, A. D., & Templin, T. J. (2016). Secondary professional socialization through professional organizations: An exploratory study. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 35(1), 70-75.
- Richards, K. A. R., Templin, T. J., & Graber, K. (2014). The socialization of teachers in physical education: Review and recommendations for future works. *Kinesiology Review*, 3(2), 113-134. doi:10.1123/kr.2013-0006
- Ricoeur, P. (1988). *Time and narrative: Vol. III*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Riessman, C. K. (2008). *Narrative methods for the human sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Rink, J. (2001). Investigating the assumptions of pedagogy. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 20, 112-128.
- Rink, J.E., French, K.E., & Tseerdsma, B.L. (1996). Foundations of the learning and instruction of sport and games. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 15, 399-417.
- Ritchie, J., & Lewis, J. (Eds.) (2003). *Qualitative Research Practice: A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers*. London: Thousand Oaks.
- Roberts, S. J. (2011). Teaching Games for Understanding: The difficulties and challenges experienced by participation cricket coaches. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 16(1), 33-48.
- Rogers, C. R. (1983). *Freedom to Learn for the 80's*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company.

- Rogoff, B. (1988). Commentary on Bidell's Vygotsky, Piaget and the dialectic of development. *Human Development*, 31, 346–348.
- Roper, J. M., & Shapira, J. (2000). *Ethnography in nursing research: Methods in nursing research*. London: Sage.
- Rovegno, I. (1998). The development of in-service teachers' knowledge of a constructivist approach to physical education: Teaching beyond activities. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 69(2), 147- 162.
- Rovegno, I., & Dolly, P. (2006). Constructivist perspectives on learning. In D. Kirk, D. Macdonald & M. O'Sullivan (Eds.), *The handbook of physical education* (pp. 242–61). London, Thousand Oaks & New Delhi: Sage.
- Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. (2012). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Russell, J., Gaudreault, K. L., & Richards, K. A. R. (2016). Doctoral student socialization: Educating stewards of the physical education profession. *Quest*, 68(4), 439-456.
- Ryan, S., & Bridges, F. S. (2000). The influence of teacher education on teachers' beliefs about purposes of physical education. *Education*, 121(2), 301–304.
- Sarantakos, S. (1993). *Social Research Australia*. MacMillan Education Australia PTY Ltd.
- Schempp, P. G. (1989). Apprenticeship-of-observation and the development of physical education teachers. *Socialization into physical education: Learning to teach*, 13-38.
- Schempp, P. G., & Graber, K. (1992). Teacher socialization from a dialectical perspective: Pretraining through induction. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 11, 329–348.

- Schempp, P. G., Sparkes, A. C., & Templin, T. J. (1993). The micropolitics of teacher induction. *American Educational Research Journal*, 30(3), 447–472.
- Schow, D. (2006). The culture of domestic violence advocacy: Values of equality/behaviors of control. *Women & Health*, 43(4), 49-68. doi: 10.1300/J013v43n04\_04
- Schuh, K. L. (2004). Learner-centered principles in teacher-centered practices?. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20(8), 833-846.
- Schwandt, T. A. (1994). Constructivist, interpretivist approaches to human inquiry. *Handbook of qualitative research*, 1, 118-137.
- Shaw, R. (2010). Embedding reflexivity within experiential qualitative psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 7(3), 233-243.
- Sheppard, J., & Mandigo, J. (2009). PlaySport: Teaching life skills for understanding through games. In T. Hopper, J. L. Butler & B. Storey (Eds.), *TGfU...Simply good pedagogy: Understanding a complex challenge* (pp. 73-86). Toronto: HPE Canada.
- Sigel, I. E. (1985). A conceptual analysis of beliefs. In I.E. Sigel (Ed.), *Parental belief systems: The psychological consequences for children* (pp.345-371). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Singleton, E. (2009). From command to constructivism: Canadian secondary school physical education curriculum and teaching games for understanding. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 39(2), 321-342.
- Sirna, K., Tinning, R., & Rossi, T. (2009). The health and physical education subject department office as a site for student teacher's professional identity. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*.

- Smagorinsky, P., & Barnes, M. E. (2014). Revisiting and revising the apprenticeship of observation. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 41(4), 29-52.
- Smith, B. (2018). Generalizability in qualitative research: Misunderstandings, opportunities and recommendations for the sport and exercise sciences. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health*, 10(1), 137-149.
- Smith, B., & McGannon, K. R. (2018). Developing rigor in qualitative research: Problems and opportunities within sport and exercise psychology. *International review of sport and exercise psychology*, 11(1), 101-121.
- Smith, J. K. (1983). Quantitative versus qualitative research: An attempt to clarify the issue. *Educational researcher*, 12(3), 6-13.
- Smith, W., & Philpot, R. (2011). *The preparation of HPE teachers in New Zealand*. Taylor & Francis Group. doi:10.1080/18377122.2011.9730360
- Sparkes, A., & Smith, B. (2009). Judging the quality of qualitative inquiry: criteriology and relativism in action. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 10, 491–497.
- Sparkes, A., & Smith, B. (2014). *Qualitative Research Methods in Sport, Exercise and Health: From process to product*. London: Routledge.
- Sparks, A. (1991). Curriculum change: A gaining sense of perspective. In N. Armstrong & A. Sparks (Eds.), *Issues in physical education* (pp. 1–19). London, England: Casell.
- Sport New Zealand (2015). School Sport Futures Project: *The final report*. Retrieved from: <https://sportnz.org.nz/assets/Uploads/attachments/managing-sport/young-people/School-Sport-Futures-Project-Final-Report.pdf>



- Sport New Zealand (2017). *Runing Secondary School Sport (RSSS) - The school sport environment*. pp. 8-26. Retreived from: <https://sportnz.org.nz/managing-sport/search-for-a-resource/guides/running-secondary-school-sport>
- Stephenson, B., & Jowett, S. (2009). Factors that influence the development of English youth soccer coaches. *International journal of coaching science*, 3(1), 3-16.
- Stothart, R. (1996). *For the Record: A Reference Book about New Zealand Physical Education*. Physical Education New Zealand.
- Stothart, R. (2000). Uncomfortable bedfellows: Sport and physical education, a problematic relationship. *Journal of Physical Education New Zealand*. 33(1), 40–48.
- Stothart, R. (2005). Nine strikes and you're out: New Zealand physical education in crisis. *Journal of Physical Education New Zealand*. 38(1), 95–102.
- Stran, M., & Curtner-Smith, M.D. (2009). Influence of occupational socialization on two preservice teachers' interpretation and delivery of the sport education model. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 28, 38–53.
- Strauss, A. L. (1987). *Qualitative analysis for social scientists*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Strauss, A. L., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of Qualitative Research*. California, Sage Publications.
- Strauss, A. L., & Corbin, J. (1994). Grounded theory methodology: An overview. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.) *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (1<sup>st</sup> ed.) (pp. 273–85). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Strauss, A. L., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded Theory Procedures and Techniques*, (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Strauss, A. L., & Glaser, B. G. (1970). *Anguish*. Mill Valley, CA: Sociology Press.
- Stroot, S. A., & Ko, B. O. M. N. A. (2006). Induction of beginning physical educators into the school setting. *The handbook of physical education*, 425-448.
- Taggart, A. C. (1988). The systematic development of teaching skills: A sequence of planned pedagogical experiences. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 8(1), 73-86.
- Taylor, B., & Garratt, D. (2010). The professionalization of sports coaching: relations of power, resistance and compliance. *Journal of Sport, Education and Society*, 15(1), 121-139.
- Taylor, R. L., & Wasicsko, M. M. (2000). *The dispositions to teach*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southern Region Association of Teacher Educators (SRATE) Conference, Lexington KY.
- Tella, S. (1996) Teacher Education at the University of Helsinki, In S. Tella (ed.), *Teacher Education in Finland: Present and Future Trends and Challenges* (pp. 51-65). Studia Pedawaica II, Helsinki, Department of Teacher Education and the Vantaa Institute for Continuing Education, University of Helsinki.
- Templin, T. J. (1979). Occupational socialization and the physical education student teacher. *Research Quarterly. American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance*, 50(3), 482-493.
- Templin, T. J., & Richards, K. A. R. (2014). C. H. McCloy Lecture: Reflections on socialization into physical education: An intergenerational perspective. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 85, 431-445.

- Templin, T. J., & Schempp, P.G. (Eds.) (1989). *Socialization into physical education: Learning to teach*. Indianapolis, IN: Benchmark Press, pp. 1–11.
- Templin, T., Padaruth, S., Sparkes, A., & Schempp, P.G. (2017). A historical overview of teacher socialization in physical education. In K.A.R. Richards & K. L. Gaudreault (Eds.), *Teacher socialization in physical education: New perspectives*, (pp. 11- 29). Abingdon, Oxon; New York, N.Y; Routledge.
- Templin, T., Woodford, R., & Mulling, C. (1982). On becoming a physical educator: Occupational choice and the anticipatory socialization process. *Quest*, 34(2), 119-133.
- Thomas, E. (2002). *Teacher education: Dilemmas and prospects*. London: Kogan Page.
- Thomas, G., & James, D. (2006). Reinventing grounded theory: Some questions about theory, ground and discovery. *British Educational Research Journal*, 32, 767-795. doi: 10.1080/01411920600989412
- Tinning, R., Kirk, D., & Evans, J. (1993). *Learning to teach physical education*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Tracy, S. J. (2010). Qualitative quality: eight “Big-Tent” criteria for excellent qualitative research. *Qualitative inquiry*, 16, 837–851.
- Trost, S. G. (2004). School physical education in the post-report era: An analysis from public health. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 23(4), 318-337.
- Tsangaridou, N. (2006). Teachers’ beliefs. *The handbook of physical education*, 486-501.
- Tyler, R. W. (1949). *Basic principles of curriculum and instruction*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

- Urquhart, C. (2013). *Grounded theory for qualitative research: A practical guide*. Los Angeles: Sage.
- Valsiner, J. (1987). *Culture and the Development of Children's Action*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Univ. Press.
- Van Maanen, J., & Schein, E. (1979). Toward a theory of organizational socialization. In B. Staw (Ed.), *Research in organizational behavior* (pp. 209–261). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Vollmer, C. E., & Curtner-Smith, M. D. (2016). Influence of Acculturation and Professional Socialization on Preservice Teachers' Interpretation and Implementation of the Teaching Games for Understanding Model. *Physical Educator*, 73(1), 74.
- Von Glasersfeld, E. (1995). *Radical Constructivism: A Way of Knowing and Learning*. *Studies in Mathematics Education Series: 6*. Falmer Press, Taylor & Francis Inc., 1900 Frost Road, Suite 101, Bristol, PA 19007.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind and Society*. Cambridge MA: MIT Press.
- Wade, A. (1967). *The FA guide to training and coaching*, London: Heinemann.
- Wallian, N., & C.-W. Chang. (2007). Language, thinking and action: Towards a semio-constructivist approach in physical education. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy* 12(3), 289–311.
- Walls, P., Parahoo, K., & Fleming, P. (2010). The Role and place of knowledge and literature in grounded theory, *Nurse Researcher*, 17(4), 8-17.
- Wenger, E. (1998). Communities of practice: Learning as a social system. *Systems thinker*, 9(5), 2-3.

- Wilkin, M. (1992). The Challenge of Diversity, *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 22(3), 307-312.
- Williams, A., & Soares, A. (2002). Sharing Roles and Responsibilities in Initial Teacher Training: perceptions of some key players, *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 32(1), 91-107, Carfax Publishing.
- Wilson, S. M. (1990). The secret garden of teacher education. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 72, 204-209.
- Woods, A. M., & Lynn, S. K. (2014). One physical educator's career cycle: Strong start, great run, approaching finish. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 85(1), 68-80. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com.ezproxy.canterbury.ac.nz/docview/1520305202?accountid=14499>.
- Wright, S. (2001). The socialization of Singaporean physical educators. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 20(3), 207–226.
- Yeo, R. K., & Marquardt, M. J. (2015). (Re) interpreting action, learning, and experience: Integrating action learning and experiential learning for HRD. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 26(1), 81-107. doi:10.1002/hrdq.21199
- Yoon, K., & Armour, K. M. (2017). Mapping physical education teachers' professional learning and impacts on pupil learning in a community of practice in South Korea. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 22(4), 427-444. doi:10.1080/17408989.2016.1268589
- Young, A., & MacPhail, A. (2014). Irish physical education cooperating teachers' experiences of learning to become a “teacher of teachers”. *Open Sports Sciences Journal*, 7, 98-105. doi: 10.2174/1875399X01407010098

Zeichner, K. M. (1979). *The dialectics of teacher socialization*. Paper presented at the Association for Teacher Educators, Orlando, FL.

Zeichner, K. M., & Gore, J. M. (1990). Teacher socialization. In W.R. Houston, M. Haberman, & J. Sikula (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 329–348). New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

# Appendices

## Preface

As suggested by Urquhart (2013), appendix one to three try to provide a succession of evidence of the grounded theory process adopted during the study. They also try to capture my process of thought, as well as the evolution of coding and analysis that happened throughout this research. Appendix one presents evidence and a snapshot of the initial coding process. At this stage, there were many ideas and potential directions the data could have taken. Appendix two provides evidence of the process of focus coding where more refined coding and links between the data began to emerge. It also provides evidence of how narrative analysis was used during this stage of analysis (where the life-history interview took place). Appendix three presents the emergent themes that were developed from a shift in the analysis, moving from strict description (coding) to abstraction (memo-writing). However, this appendix only presents the emergent themes as the example of memo-writing can be found in the Methodology (chapter 4).

Appendix four provides evidence that this study was granted ethical approval, and appendix five presents copies of the consent forms and cover letters handed to each participant and Principal of each school involved in the study respectively.

## Appendix One: Initial (Open) Coding

Coding means generating labels for segments of data that at the same time summarise and account for each piece of data. (Charmaz, 2006). For illustrative purpose, and in order to prevent the document becoming too large to compile, this appendix presents sections of the initial coding process from the first and second interviews from two of the participants.

**(David)**

**Can you describe the way you teach and coach?**

Initial Coding	Properties	Interview Transcript
• Development of tactical understanding and appreciation of the game.	<b>Empowerment approach</b>  <b>Tactical Understanding</b>  <b>Input of the players</b>  <b>Decision Making</b>	I like encourage, I try to utilize an empowerment approach, I try to include the players in the session and some of the decision-making, ahh... I put a real emphasis on developing leadership within the groups that I coach, but developing also a tactical understanding and appreciation of how we're trying to play the game
• willing to try different approaches to teaching	<b>Open minded</b>	I'm not afraid to screw up, I'm always willing to learn so.... I think just being exposed to, you know, different methods of teaching, you know, different ways of thinking, I don't mind giving things a go...
• Game Centred Approach for both teaching and coaching	<b>Similarities with Games</b>  <b>Concept Approach (start with game or modified</b>	Yes, yeah, I think most of my sessions would start off, whether it be a classroom, a lesson or a sports session, would start with a really good warm-up, sometimes I would go straight into a game as opposed Yes, yeah,



	version – technique – game)	I think most of my sessions would start off, whether it be a classroom, to be working on some technical aspect of the game, I often think that a good model of a lesson or a coaching session is warm-up into a game related to the theme you're working on, coming out of that game after identifying some technical areas that need development, and then going back into the game, yeah, maybe doing that again if the time allows, so yeah. So be fairly similar how I try to teach and coach.
--	-----------------------------	--

**Where do you think the way you teach and/or coach comes from?**

Initial Coding	Properties	Interview Transcript
• Tertiary Education	Encouraged to think critically about the traditional approach to coach and teach games  Encouraged to develop a tactical understanding	yeah, through the course that I did, I did a degree in PE and sports science, we were encouraged to critically think about the traditional approach to coaching and teaching games and developing tactical understanding and motivation through, coaching through games, it was something that we were actively encouraged to do, so that did influence my coaching.
• A more holistic approach  Influenced by a coach	Being aware of other culture and being humble off the field	There is a coach... His ability to manage people and, just as knowledge, so you tend to remember what he said, he had sort of an influence... One of his things was... "We can be arrogant on the field and humble off it"... He used to talk a lot about culture, and how we conduct ourselves, and that was one of the things that I took out of it, from the time that he was my

	<b>Gaining technical knowledge at the same time</b>	coach... And he just had a good really technical knowledge as well, a lot of the technical knowledge I gained was from working with him, mainly due to the level that he played, he played professional level and he was really good.
<b>• Rod Thorpe as a lecturer</b>	<b>Importance of game based approaches</b>  <b>Learnt how to structure games in a different way</b>  <b>Importance of questioning and planning</b>	<p>What I learned from him was the importance of a game-based approach obviously that was a key thing that he promoted, the importance of... looking to start your session in a different way, you don't necessarily have to start with skill practice, warm-up with skill practice game, even the warm-up can involve a game component. I just learned how you could structure your games differently, but I also learned that you have to plan that and do it carefully, you couldn't just... it's not something that could just happen, and there was a real emphasis on questioning to be able to achieve that effectively. So even now I always... When I'm planning the session, I have key questions that keep me back... I tried to use them to give me back on track... Keep me focus on the outcomes that I'm trying to achieve when I'm coaching.</p>
<b>• Encouraged by Rod Thorpe to reflect about the game</b>	<b>Importance of decision making over technique</b>  <b>Importance of “how to” instead of “this is what you do”.</b>	<p>probably the key way that he got me thinking about that, is when you look to a game and you look to some of the best tries, the best scoring plays and you compare that to the correct technical model, and you see some of the best plays in that sport, they don't even look similar so, how you get to an objective or goal it doesn't always require the absolute correct technique... Is how... Is your ability to make decisions</p>

		under pressure are probably more important. Yeah, the technical model is less important in the invasion games in particular, so yeah, that's probably the key thing I've learned from him. It's more the "how to" not the "this is what you do".
• Consistency in his learning throughout university	Similar approaches used by the lectures	I am not sure if they were exactly using a game-based approach... But I feel like lot of them were using a similar type of approach.

**When and why did you decided to become a PE teacher and/or coach?**

Initial Coding	Properties	Interview Transcript
• Having a backup plan		since I was about 15, I felt that was a good option to have a backup, you know, I had aspirations to be a professional player, whether that be football or rugby, one of the two, and then the PE teacher was the backup.
• Self-driven • PE teachers as role models		It was mainly self-driven, I wanted to work in an area I was interested in... and probably more important was the role model of PE teachers I had, and the teachers that I had in school
• Having a teacher that got everyone involved/ Positive environment/ use of small sided games	Experiences of some sort of game based approaches since secondary school	I had a teacher at secondary school... there was quite an emphasis on games, he was probably a coach that used small games, he didn't do a lot of breaking down the skills, yeah, probably a little bit unstructured about things so, generally a positive environment, everyone

		involved and engaged in the activity, most of the times that was what the session looked like.
--	--	--

Can you describe your experiences at University?

Initial Coding	Properties	Interview Transcript
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Experiences of developing questioning techniques and developing a game sense approach</li> </ul>	<p>Influenced his beliefs and approaches towards games teaching</p>	<p>mainly going to Loughborough University and having a number of practical sessions with some really high-level educators looking at developing questioning techniques and developing a game sense approach, coaching through games, that significantly changed how I went about things after that, yeah.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Encouraged to reflect on the game by Rod Thorpe</li> </ul>	<p>Reflecting on decision making</p>	<p>And that was really drilled into us at University because one of the pioneers of the approach TGfU, Rod Thorpe, really emphasized that... How many hours have we spent practicing the perfect pass in rugby...the perfect pass the perfect lineup, how many games do you see that don't even look like that, it looks completely different, because the perception and the decision made at the time gives them something different. That really helped me reflect on the approach.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Placements reinforced what he learnt at University</li> </ul>		<p>when I was doing my placements, I recall two main schools, they very much fostered a game-based approach, using of questioning, they were good departments, the used to work close to the University</p>

**Do you have any knowledge about student/athlete centred approaches? If yes, can you explain what do you know about them?**

<b>Initial Coding</b>	<b>Properties</b>	<b>Interview Transcript</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Use of small sided games</li> <li>• Understanding that GBAs allow for more flexibility</li> </ul>	games can be used at any point	What I understand about it is that there is more than one way to run a session, by using games you're including more people within the session. Using small sided games they have more opportunities to touch the ball make decisions and you also get a lot of the benefits that come as part that as well. The session doesn't have to follow a traditional approach of warm-up, skill practice game, but the games can be used at any point, and the key thing is the insight and the understanding and not just the plan of the game just for the sake of planning a game so yeah
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increase Tactical understanding</li> <li>• Transference of knowledge</li> </ul>	Increased engagement and better ability to make decisions	The main goals for me would be increased tactical understanding from the players, increase engagement and better ability to make decisions, I think those would be the main ones. Being able to transfer the knowledge they have learned to the game would be probably the main thing but that would take time so I think the game-based approach is more of a long-term approach
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Understanding of the main differences between traditional approaches and GBAs</li> </ul>		The key difference for me is that a traditional approach is very much led by the coach, it's coached dominant and less option for the decision-making from the players, and the game-based approach fosters more

		decision-making by the players and it's not so much coached driven.
--	--	---

**Can you describe your experiences of playing games and sports?**

<b>Initial Coding</b>	<b>Properties</b>	<b>Interview Transcript</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Prolonged period experiencing informal play</li> </ul>	Playing unstructured games	I probably didn't start playing organized sport until about 11 or 12. I have played a lot of playground sport, I think that was good, when I compare to a lot of the young children these days, and they seem to get into organized sport very quickly, so I played a lot of games...
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Introduced to sports by his friends and an uncle.</li> </ul>		Probably my friends I think more than anyone, an uncle was into sport as well, he was a probably a factor, but mom and dad were not really into sports that much, and I didn't have any older brothers and sisters, so purely friends at school I think.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Good relationship with coaches</li> <li>• Showing a strong belief in athlete centred approaches from an early age</li> <li>• Recognising that some of the coaches had a more traditional approach</li> </ul>	<p>Agreeing with use of questioning</p> <p>Disagreeing with "too much skill instruction"</p>	<p>Generally I had a good relationship with my coaches... I think I had along the years 15 to 20 coaches.</p> <p>I didn't always agree with their ideas but generally they were pretty good. Sometimes, some of the coaches I worked with.... Looking back in terms of, when I was a young player, there was a lot of breaking skills down and a lot of static things happening, not enough small sided games... A lot of my coaches were good using questioning, that was a good side of it. But yeah, I think a lot of the times there was a little bit too</p>

		much talking and too much skill instruction... And normally selection is something that I disagreed on, and that can be quite common...
--	--	---

**For how long have you been teaching and/or coaching? Does the way you teach/coach suffered any changes throughout the years? If yes, can you describe those changes?**

<b>Initial Coding</b>	<b>Properties</b>	<b>Interview Transcript</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Teaching and coaching for a long time</li> </ul>	<p><b>Experienced teacher and coach</b></p> <p><b>Coaching both team and individual sports</b></p>	<p>I've coached sport since I was 22 probably, yeah. So, ever since I have started teaching in a secondary school, I've been coaching... I would say 18 years.</p> <p>I've coached a number of sports, but mainly over the years it would be rugby, football, cricket, athletics, a little bit of basketball</p> <p>I was a PE teacher for eight years... I have not been a PE since I've been doing this job, head of co-curricular activities, which is 10 years now.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Struggle to keep focus on game based approaches</li> <li>• Influence of coaching courses</li> <li>• Working towards keeping the focus on adopting game based approaches</li> </ul>	<p><b>Ups and downs in his approach</b></p>	<p>Since coming to New Zealand the more sessions I've been on, and the more, the more professional development opportunities I've taken up, initially I probably had more of a game sense focus, but what I find is a lot of the coaching sessions and coaching courses you've gone, they tend to break the game down a lot, and look at certain areas of the game, key components of a game, and often, that's often through more of a technical, breaking the skills down, so it becomes more skill learning, so yeah, it's up-and-down, I've had to really work on keep the focus of</p>

		developing a game sense in terms of the coaching approach that I use.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Identifying he moved away from game based approaches since moving to New Zealand</li> </ul>		Fiji national coach came in and gave a great presentation on utilizing game sense in rugby coaching, and I really identified with that, and it probably made me reflect that I've probably moved away from it at times, yeah.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feeling encouraged to continue to adapt game based approach</li> </ul>	"was probably a little bit of refresher"	Probably the biggest thing... It was probably the first time that I've seen an international coach utilizing that approach consistently through their own coaching, so yeah, that just raised awareness of how you can manipulate games and create opportunities to develop that understanding and engagement with the players. I think he's presentation encouraged me to keep using that way of coaching yeah, absolutely. I took quite a lot out of that session, and it was probably a little bit of refresher as well... The importance of that.

(Mark)

Can you describe the way you teach and coach?

Initial Coding	Properties	Interview Transcript
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Meet students' needs</li> </ul>	Balance between the curriculum goals and the students' needs	it's all about meeting the students' needs, identifying, you know, what are their needs and what are the curriculum sort of goals, I suppose



• Using whole range of approaches (from student centred through teacher centred)	Being adaptable as a teacher	I like to think that I'm pretty adaptable, and using a whole range of, you know, things whether it is student directed right through teacher directed, and everything else in between
• Adapt the teaching style	Adapt to different contexts and population	I can adapt to different situations, different classes, different age groups, and different types of students.
• Different attitude towards coaching		when I coach the students, you know, have chosen to be there, they want to play volleyball or play rugby whereas the students that I teach don't necessarily have the same attitude because PE is compulsory
• Demanding coaching style	get that absolute maximum out of the athletes	with coaching I'm a lot more demanding, not that I'm not demanding with teaching, is a different kind of demanding, you know, I'll push, I'll drive, you know, get that absolute maximum out of them when I'm coaching whereas with teaching, you know, if you do that I think they'll lose a lot of interest and a lot of engagement in my classes

**Where do you think the way you teach and/or coach comes from?**

Initial Coding	Properties	Interview Transcript
• Importance of placements (Tertiary education)	Learning to adapt	How you can adapt it to different type of students, different type of classes... That's probably my greatest memories of each placement.

**When and why did you decided to become a PE teacher and/or coach?**

Initial Coding	Properties	Interview Transcript
• Looking up to coaches	Do for other what coaches have done for him	But I guess the big thing is I had a coach his name is ***** and, I really, I really looked up to him, you know, he was someone that I admired, and I thought, the things that you're doing for some of the young people, I'd love to be able to do the same
• Influenced by teachers	Teachers as a role model	I also had a couple of really cool teachers, there are really good teachers...I really thought, you know what, if I can really be anything like him, that would be pretty cool  I love physical activity, I love working with people, I had some really good teachers here at St. Nicolas.
• Driven by a volleyball coach		you know, they were just so positive to me, I suppose, that I just wanted to do the same, that volleyball coach I mentioned, he drove me to really like push myself and, you know, overcome this barriers that I thought, I thought that would be pretty cool to do the same for others
• Feel obliged to coach, give back and help others	Do for others what someone has done for him	I think I've always...I feel like I'm obliged to coach, having played a lot of sport myself, you know, I had a lot of coaches who gave up a lot of time to help me develop as a player and as a person, so I thought it was natural for me to do the same

Can you describe your experiences at University?

Initial Coding	Properties	Interview Transcript
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Acknowledging the importance of his PETE program</li> </ul>		So I really enjoyed University, you know, I learned heck of a lot
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Placements enhanced his passion about teaching</li> </ul>		every teaching placement just gave me more and more of like a passion to getting out to the schools and, you know, teaching
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning about game based approaches</li> <li>• Experiment different approaches during placement</li> </ul>	Put what he learnt into practice was fundamental	I do remember doing like game sense, or game-based approach whatever that was at University, and I can understand it... You go to teaching placements during University and you put it into practice... And I think that was the big learning for me, it was putting into practice of course when I graduated... You just try a whole heap of different stuff
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Put into practice what was learnt</li> </ul>	Having key concepts	At the placements they had a couple of key concepts that they wanted us to look at in terms of teaching approaches and then you go out and do it. You know TGfU, play teach play, episodic lessons, game sense, we usually talked about it PE prep and then you go out and give it a crack... I really enjoyed it to be fair.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning to adapt teaching to the student and their needs</li> </ul>		And then in the next placement try another one, so you're sort of building up ideas about the teaching styles, and working out what you're doing best and what you enjoy. How you can adapt it to different type of students, different type of classes... That's probably my greatest memories of each placement

**Do you have any knowledge about student/athlete centred approaches? If yes, can you explain what do you know about them?**

<b>Initial Coding</b>	<b>Properties</b>	<b>Interview Transcript</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Adopt modifying games to achieve an outcome</b></li> </ul>		<p>I guess modifying the games to achieve whatever outcomes you want. If you are doing football in the focus is parsing the bowl or whatever you might just the rules and say 10 passes before you can score as opposed to just playing football, you know, which is probably what a lot of people still do. I think an effective game-based approach is making the proper modifications on the game to serve whatever you want to achieve with it.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Learning through games and experiences</b></li> </ul>	<p><b>More than just learning technique</b></p>	<p>I guess it's just learning through games and experiences... It's not just learning technique in technical stuff, is learning everything within the curriculum I suppose, in terms of relationships with other people, learning about yourself and how you operate in certain scenarios... So I guess building whatever you want to work on through games and... I guess the difference between games and other drills is... I supposed you can say that games are a lot more open and a lot less controlled</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Adopting GBAs without realising</b></li> </ul>		<p>The ones that I remember are Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU), Game Sense approach and Play Teach Play. Those are the ones that I remember from University and I inadvertently do without really thinking.</p>

**Can you describe your experiences of playing games and sports?**

<b>Initial Coding</b>	<b>Properties</b>	<b>Interview Transcript</b>
• Experiencing many sports	Experiences of both individual and team sports	I played everything, I lived outside...my main sports were rugby; cricket; touch, you know, athletics, in terms of serious stuff, but you know, always be kicking a soccer ball around, play a lot of volleyball when I was in high school, anything, tennis, yes I was always active.
• Informal play in a daily basis	Constantly involved with sports	if I didn't have a ball on my hands I felt uncomfortable, it's just like the way I grown-up, we never stayed insight, even if it was raining we would go outside.
• Unstructured play	Creating own rules for the games	... We made our own fun a lot of the time... Made up our own rules... Made up our own games. Once we played rugby on concrete...
• Experiences of informal play and structured sport at the same time		I started playing rugby when I was four and I've just retired this year, and I'm 31, so....ahahaha.... 27 years... you know, and I started athletics when I was young, but rugby and volleyball were the two major sports that I played, you know, that I play to a high level, I played rugby for 27 years and played volleyball from when I was 12 and I still play now, a lot more socially, so... I would say 19 years, so I played for a long time, serious sport.
• Experiences of highly structured sport (Rugby and Volleyball)	Playing team sports at a high level	I've played rugby, I played four years in first 15 when I was in high school, I remember when I left school I got a few good opportunities, I made the New Zealand under 19, and New Zealand under 21 rugby team,

		<p>which is pretty cool, and then in 2007 when I was 23, I played for Canterbury in the, I think it was called the Air New Zealand cup, that is now called the minor team cup, so I played for them for two years, and then I got a really good teaching job in the North Island, and I played rugby for Northland in that same competition, so I played for four years professionally, after I've played a little bit of international age grade stuff. Ahh.... Volleyball I didn't play as seriously, I made the New Zealand under 19 team, but that was at the same time as the rugby team so I had to choose one or the other and... I chose rugby.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Introduced to sports by his father</b></li> </ul>		<p>my dad introduced me to rugby... hummm... yeah, when I was a kid he just grabbed me by the hand and took me down to the local rugby club</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Influence of Culture</b></li> </ul>	<b>Social influence</b>	<p>and also just being a New Zealander you're surrounded by rugby... Like it's a rugby country and you see it on TV and all that kind of stuff, so it was definitely a mixed between my dad and just...I suppose society in general... Just being a Kiwi.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Introduced to volleyball by a friend</b></li> </ul>		<p>With the volleyball, my best friend, my best mate, still my best mate, at high school his father was a New Zealand volleyball player and he basically said, you know, come and play, my dad will coach us and then, yeah, sort of went from there</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Some coaches had more impact</b></li> </ul>		<p>I'd say, I've had about 15 to 20 different coaches, but there are certainly, you know, some coaches that I had</p>

		more impact than the others that I can remember, you know, sort of 4 or 5
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Showing coached centred beliefs</li> </ul>	<p>The coaches “run the show”</p> <p>The players “fall within what the coach wants”</p> <p>The coach is the main piece within a team</p>	<p>I always had a good relationship which coaches, I think...ahh... You know, I’ve always believed that the coaches are there, you know, to run the show and the players, you know, we fall within what the coach wants as opposed to the other way around, so I like to think that I’ve always supported the coaches, you know, regardless of, you know, who they are or whatever, because, you know I respect what their role within an effective team is...</p>

**For how long have you been teaching and/or coaching? Does the way you teach/coach suffered any changes throughout the years? If yes, can you describe those changes?**

Initial Coding	Properties	Interview Transcript
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Experienced teacher and coach</li> </ul>		<p>I started coaching... I coach my first team when I was 14 so... 17 years I’ve been coaching. But probably serious coaching, since I was 19, so 12 years. With teaching...I’ve been teaching since 2009, so this is my eighth year.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Humanistic approach influenced by school environment</li> </ul>	Adapting to the students’ needs	<p>I taught in a very diverse school where most of my students were from very tough neighbourhoods and, you know, their problems at home, most of the times, would come first in my class... My priority was to create a good environment and what I had to teach them would come later...it was not the focal point. It</p>

		was really hard but I really enjoyed being able to help them.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Influence of school context</li> <li>• Shaping coaching towards a coach centred approach</li> <li>• School culture aligns with his beliefs about coaching</li> </ul>	<b>Culture of excellence</b>	...here, in St. Nicolas there, is a real demand for excellence, you know, high achievement...I think the environment here is an environment where if you achieve high, that's cool, whereas maybe in some other schools, if you achieve high people try to shut you down or cut off your legs... There's a real culture of excellence here and everybody works hard to succeed. I don't coach for mediocrity I coach trying to get the best out of people and if that's encouraged as part of our culture then that's something that I'm definitely sort of keen to be a part of... I guess that's one of the reasons that I'm here.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Influence of school culture in his approaches towards PE</li> <li>• His beliefs align with the school vision and are enhanced by it</li> </ul>	<b>Demand for excellence and achievement.</b>	PE, in drama, in music, in every facet of the school life here is, you know, demand for excellence and achievement. I don't think is high-pressure, if you screw up... but I think is just that culture of... I want to do well... I'm going to do everything I can to do well, and that is something that I want to be a part of. I'll do my part to enhance that culture.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• New school reshaped his beliefs and approaches</li> </ul>		when I was at Luther High School they started looking a lot more at modern learning, you know, pedagogy, and I... I won't say I was a leader in that but, I did my research on that. Yeah, it certainly changed the way, you know, the way I think. When I first started teaching I wasn't that bad but, you know, it was very much... This is what we need to do and bang bang



		bang, as opposed to students unpacking things themselves
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• moving from a teacher centred approach to a student centred approach</li> </ul>	Being adaptable	I like to think I sort of moved towards the student centred style of teaching as opposed to, you know, do this that and do that, etc... So yeah, I think that my approach has evolved a little bit over time
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Modifying his approaches according with school context</li> </ul>	Open to try new approaches	At Luther High, it was something that we investigated as a whole school, whole modern learning environment, modern pedagogy and I just thought, why not... Why not look into it and see what we can do, and give things a try, so that was certainly a school policy that I bought into I suppose and had a crack at, and modified my practice according to it.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Influence of parents in his approaches</li> </ul>		I think parents are quite high demanding here, I mean, they pay a lot of money to see their sons and daughters here so yeah, absolutely, they have a big influence in how he teach and coach... and a lot of parents are quite demanding of coaches and teachers as well, and that's the way should be, it should be in every school, but definitely more so here (St. Nicolas), you know, because of that private factor.

## Appendix Two: Focused Coding

Following initial coding, at this stage of the grounded theory process I had to stop and ask analytic questions of the data I had collected. Here, I grouped the codes I have generated through the initial coding under a common category. By doing so, I not only started to make sense of the data and deepen my understanding of the participants' beliefs, approaches and experiences, but also direct subsequent data generation toward the analytic issues I am delineating (Charmaz, 2006). Note that at this stage, and similarly to the initial coding, the process of coding was done individually for each participant, as it was only during the emergent themes that commonalities between the participants were identified. Once again, the example bellow is for illustrative purposes as it only presents parts of the focused coding process.

(David)

Initial Coding	Focus Coding	Interview Transcript
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Development of tactical understanding and appreciation of the game</li> </ul>	Student/Athlete centred approach	I like encourage, I try to utilize an empowerment approach, I try to include the players in the session and some of the decision-making, ahh... I put a real emphasis on developing leadership within the groups that I coach, but developing also a tactical understanding and appreciation of how we're trying to play the game
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• willing to try different approaches to teaching</li> </ul>		I'm not afraid to screw up, I'm always willing to learn so.... I think just being exposed to, you know, different methods of teaching, you know, different ways of thinking, I don't mind giving things a go...
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Game Centred Approach for both teaching and coaching</li> </ul>		Yes, yeah, I think most of my sessions would start off, whether it be a classroom, a lesson or a sports session, would start with a really good warm-up, sometimes I would go straight into a game as opposed Yes, yeah, I think most of my sessions would start off, whether it be a classroom, to be working on some technical aspect of the game, I often think that a good model of a lesson or a

		<p>coaching session is warm-up into a game related to the theme you're working on, coming out of that game after identifying some technical areas that need development, and then going back into the game, yeah, maybe doing that again if the time allows, so yeah. So be fairly similar how I try to teach and coach.</p>
--	--	--

Initial Coding	Focus Coding	Interview Transcript
<p><b>(Tertiary) Encouraged to think critically about the traditional approach to coach and teach games</b></p>	<p><b>Experiences during University</b></p>	<p>yeah, through the course that I did, I did a degree in PE and sports science, we were encouraged to critically think about the traditional approach to coaching and teaching games and developing tactical understanding and motivation through, coaching through games, it was something that we were actively encouraged to do, so that did influence my coaching.</p>
<p><b>• Rod Thorpe as a lecturer</b></p>		<p>What I learned from him was the importance of a game-based approach obviously that was a key thing that he promoted, the importance of... looking to start your session in a different way, you don't necessarily have to start with skill practice, warm-up with skill practice game, even the warm-up can involve a game component. I just learned how you could structure your games differently, but I also learned that you have to plan that and do it carefully, you couldn't just... it's not something that could just happen, and there was a real emphasis on questioning to be able to achieve that effectively. So even now I always... When I'm planning the session, I have key questions that keep me back... I tried to use them to give me back on track... Keep</p>

		me focus on the outcomes that I'm trying to achieve when I'm coaching.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Encouraged by Rod Thorpe to reflect about the game</li> </ul>		probably the key way that he got me thinking about that, is when you look to a game and you look to some of the best tries, the best scoring plays and you compare that to the correct technical model, and you see some of the best plays in that sport, they don't even look similar so, how you get to an objective or goal it doesn't always require the absolute correct technique... Is how... Is your ability to make decisions under pressure are probably more important. Yeah, the technical model is less important in the invasion games in particular, so yeah, that's probably the key thing I've learned from him. It's more the "how to" not the "this is what you do".
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Consistency in his learning throughout university</li> </ul>		I am not sure if they were exactly using a game-based approach... But I feel like lot of them were using a similar type of approach.

Initial Coding	Focus Coding	Interview Transcript
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Late introduction to structured sport</li> </ul>	Unstructured play	I probably didn't start playing organized sport until about 11 or 12.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Experiencing free play for a long period of time</li> </ul>		I have played a lot of playground sport, I think that was good, when I compare to a lot of the young children these days, and they seem to get into organized sport very quickly, so I played a lot of games...

Initial Coding	Focus Coding	Interview Transcript
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A more holistic approach</li> <li>Influenced by a coach</li> </ul>	<p><b>coaches and teachers as role models</b></p>	<p>There is a coach... His ability to manage people and, just as knowledge, so you tend to remember what he said, he had sort of an influence... One of his things was... “We can be arrogant on the field and humble off it”... He used to talk a lot about culture, and how we conduct ourselves, and that was one of the things that I took out of it, from the time that he was my coach... And he just had a good really technical knowledge as well, a lot of the technical knowledge I gained was from working with him, mainly due to the level that he played, he played professional level and he was really good.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• PE teachers as role models</li> </ul>		<p>It was mainly self-driven, I wanted to work in an area I was interested in... and probably more important was the role model of PE teachers I had, and the teachers that I had in school</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Having a teacher that got everyone involved/ Positive environment/ use of small sided games</li> </ul>		<p>I had a teacher at secondary school... there was quite an emphasis on games, he was probably a coach that used small games, he didn't do a lot of breaking down the skills, yeah, probably a little bit unstructured about things so, generally a positive environment, everyone involved and engaged in the activity, most of the times that was what the session looked like.</p>

Initial Coding	Focus Coding	Interview Transcript
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Influence of coaching courses</li> </ul>		<p>the more sessions I've been on, and the more, the more professional development opportunities I've taken up... initially I probably had more of a game sense focus, but what I find is a lot of the coaching sessions and coaching</p>

	<b>Fluctuations in coaching approaches</b>	courses you've gone, they tend to break the game down a lot, and look at certain areas of the game, key components of a game, and often, that's often through more of a technical, breaking the skills down, so it becomes more skill learning, so yeah,
• Struggle to keep focus on game based approaches		it's up-and-down, I've had to really work on keep the focus of developing a game sense in terms of the coaching approach that I use.
• Identifying he moved away from game based approaches since moving to New Zealand		Fiji national coach came in and gave a great presentation on utilizing game sense in rugby coaching, and I really identified with that, and it probably made me reflect that I've probably moved away from it at times, yeah.

(Mark)

Initial Coding	Focus Coding	Interview Transcript
• Meet students' needs	<b>Student/Athlete centred approach</b>	it's all about meeting the students' needs, identifying, you know, what are their needs and what are the curriculum sort of goals, I suppose
• Using whole range of approaches (from student centred through teacher centred)		I like to think that I'm pretty adaptable, and using a whole range of, you know, things whether it is student directed right through teacher directed, and everything else in between
• Adapt the teaching style		I can adapt to different situations, different classes, different age groups, and different types of students.

Initial Coding	Focus Coding	Interview Transcript
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• When coaching they have chosen to be there</li> </ul>	<b>Opposite beliefs and approaches towards coaching</b>	when I coach the students, you know, have chosen to be there, they want to play volleyball or play rugby whereas the students that I teach don't necessarily have the same attitude because PE is compulsory
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Demanding coaching style</li> </ul>		with coaching I'm a lot more demanding, not that I'm not demanding with teaching, is a different kind of demanding, you know, I'll push, I'll drive, you know, get that absolute maximum out of them when I'm coaching whereas with teaching, you know, if you do that I think they'll lose a lot of interest and a lot of engagement in my classes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Showing coached centred beliefs</li> </ul>		I always had a good relationship which coaches, I think...ahh... You know, I've always believed that the coaches are there, you know, to run the show and the players, you know, we fall within what the coach wants as opposed to the other way around, so I like to think that I've always supported the coaches, you know, regardless of, you know, who they are or whatever, because, you know I respect what their role within an effective team is...

Initial Coding	Focus Coding	Interview Transcript
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning to adapt</li> </ul>	<b>Placements as the most relevant stage of PETE</b>	How you can adapt it to different type of students, different type of classes... That's probably my greatest memories of each placement.

• Placements enhanced his passion about teaching		every teaching placement just gave me more and more of like a passion to getting out to the schools and, you know, teaching
• Learning about game based approaches		I do remember doing like game sense, or game-based approach whatever that was at University, and I can understand it... You go to teaching placements during University and you put it into practice... And I think that was the big learning for me, it was putting into practice of course when I graduated... You just try a whole heap of different stuff
• Put into practice what was learnt		At the placements they had a couple of key concepts that they wanted us to look at in terms of teaching approaches and then you go out and do it. You know TGfU, play teach play, episodic lessons, game sense, we usually talked about it PE prep and then you go out and give it a crack... I really enjoyed it to be fair.

Initial Coding	Focus Coding	Interview Transcript
• Informal play in a daily basis	Unstructured play	if I didn't have a ball on my hands I felt uncomfortable, it's just like the way I grown-up, we never stayed insight, even if it was raining we would go outside.
• Unstructured play		... We made our own fun a lot of the time... Made up our own rules... Made up our own games. Once we played rugby on concrete...
• Experiences of informal play and structured sport at the same time		I started playing rugby when I was four and I've just retired this year, and I'm 31, so...ahahaha.... 27 years... you know, and I started athletics when I was young, but rugby and volleyball were the two major sports that I played, you



		<p>know, that I play to a high level, I played rugby for 27 years and played volleyball from when I was 12 and I still play now, a lot more socially, so... I would say 19 years, so I played for a long time, serious sport.</p>
--	--	---

Initial Coding	Focus Coding	Interview Transcript
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Looking up to coaches</li> </ul>	<p><b>Interacting with coaches and teachers</b></p>	<p>But I guess the big thing is I had a coach his name is ***** and, I really, I really looked up to him, you know, he was someone that I admired, and I thought, the things that you're doing for some of the young people, I'd love to be able to do the same</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Influenced by teachers</li> </ul>		<p>I also had a couple of really cool teachers, there are really good teachers...I really thought, you know what, if I can really be anything like him, that would be pretty cool</p> <p>I love physical activity, I love working with people, I had some really good teachers here at St. Nicolas</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Driven by a volleyball coach</li> </ul>		<p>you know, they were just so positive to me, I suppose, that I just wanted to do the same, that volleyball coach I mentioned, he drove me to really like push myself and, you know, overcome this barriers that I thought, I thought that would be pretty cool to do the same for others</p>

Initial Coding	Focus Coding	Interview Transcript
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feel obliged to coach,</li> </ul>		<p>I think I've always...I feel like I'm obliged to coach, having played a lot of sport myself,</p>

• Need to give back to the community and help others	Coaching as a natural course of action	you know, I had a lot of coaches who gave up a lot of time to help me develop as a player and as a person, so I thought it was natural for me to do the same
--	--	--

Initial Coding	Focus Coding	Interview Transcript
• moving from a teacher centred approach to a student centred approach	Changes in teaching and coaching approaches	I like to think I sort of moved towards the student centred style of teaching as opposed to, you know, do this that and do that, etc... So yeah, I think that my approach has evolved a little bit over time
• Modifying his approaches according with school context		At Luther High, it was something that we investigated as a whole school, whole modern learning environment, modern pedagogy and I just thought, why not... Why not look into it and see what we can do, and give things a try, so that was certainly a school policy that I bought into I suppose and had a crack at, and modified my practice according to it.

## Appendix Three: Emergent Themes and Narrative

### Analysis

“Theoretical sampling means seeking pertinent data to *develop* your emerging *theory*. The main purpose of theoretical sampling is to elaborate and refine the categories constituting your theory. You conduct theoretical sampling by sampling to develop the properties of your category (ies) until no new properties emerge”. (Charmaz, 2006, p. 96). Here, I present some of the emergent theories that were compared with the memos which are not included here, but that were already explained through the Methodology chapter of the thesis. It was also at this stage that I started to use narrative analysis with the purpose of further explore the categories and emergent themes from the ongoing analysis done through grounded theory. As narrative analysis was an exhaustive and lengthy process, I have only included at the end of this appendix a small excerpt of one of the participants’ narratives for illustrative purposes. This helped understand and locate their beliefs and approaches over their lives.

Initial Coding	Focus Coding	Emergent Themes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Encouraged to think critically about the traditional approach to coach and teach games</li> </ul>	Experiences during University	Importance of Tertiary Education (PETE) in the development of beliefs and future approaches
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Rod Thorpe as a lecturer</li> </ul>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Encouraged by Rod Thorpe to reflect about the game</li> </ul>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Consistency in his learning throughout university</li> </ul>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning to adapt</li> </ul>		

• Placements enhanced his passion about teaching	Placements as the most relevant stage of PETE	
• Learning about game based approaches		
• Put into practice what was learnt		

Initial Coding	Focus Coding	Emergent Themes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Late introduction to structured sport</li></ul>	Unstructured play	Relevance of childhood experiences of free play
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Experiencing free play for a long period of time</li></ul>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Informal play in a daily basis</li></ul>	Experiences of Informal play	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Unstructured play</li></ul>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Experiences of informal play and structured sport at the same time</li></ul>		

Initial Coding	Focus Coding	Emergent Themes
• A more holistic approach Influenced by a coach	coaches and teachers as role models	Relevant teachers and coaches while growing up
• PE teachers as role models		
• Having a teacher that got everyone involved/ Positive		

environment/ use of small sided games		
• Looking up to coaches	Interacting with coaches and teachers	
• Influenced by teachers		
• Driven by a volleyball coach		

Initial Coding	Focus Coding	Emergent Themes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• moving from a teacher centred approach to a student centred approach (when coaches at Luther High School)</li></ul>	Changes in teaching and coaching approaches	Impact of context in teaching and coaching approaches
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Modifying his approaches according with school context</li></ul>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Influence of coaching courses</li></ul>	Fluctuations in coaching approaches	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Struggle to keep focus on game based approaches</li></ul>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Identifying he moved away from game based approaches since moving to New Zealand</li></ul>		

### Narrative Analysis – Example (Mark)

When I was a child I pretty much spent all my time playing outside you know, I guess... I lived in neighborhood with a lot of kids, I had a park two minutes walk down the road so... My memories of

when I was younger... I used to play rugby, soccer, basketball, basically anything that involved a ball, sometimes we used to use some tennis rackets that were half broken and we just had a ball around. You know in terms of the rules and things like that, most of the times we just adapted it to our environment, you know, for example cricket, we would make up different run rules, all that kind of stuff. I think at that time it just evolved we didn't really say, these are the rules, you know, you just make it as you get along... The main focus is just running around, playing, burning off energy, yeah... just hanging out with your mates. Also we did a lot of recreational activities, surfing, biking, skateboarding... I never... I hardly ever stayed inside when I was younger, I was always out on the streets or down on the park... I think those are my funniest memories... probably the biggest is just rugby and cricket, after school everyday we used to hang around in the field at school, every kid would just go into the field, but it didn't matter how old you were, year two, year six, yes, just wanted to play rugby. I played with a mixed of kids. I grew up in Dunedin and there's not many Samoan or Maori people down there, is just sort of New Zealand European or Pakeha people. I did have some cousins that I used to hang with on the weekends or after school, and again we used to play rugby, cricket, basketball... We just played, with who was outside and when it started to get dark you go home. You know, we never were a watch, we didn't have a cell phone, it was just : "all right, some to the home.", And then you go home and you have dinner and watch some rugby... So yeah, that was my childhood. My mom tried to buy me a Lego set which cost at that time heaps of money, but I didn't even look at it, just left straight away to play basketball outside... I never stayed inside I was always outside, and if it was raining I was outside playing... hahaha.... it didn't matter. I think that's where my passion of physical activity comes from... It was fun, it was what we did, we didn't have PlayStation or anything like that... We made our own fun a lot of the time... Made up our own rules... Made up our own games. Once we play rugby on concrete... The grass was closed because it was getting redone, and you know, we just did it.

When? - During his childhood

What Happened?/ Main focus Mark used to play informal games. Importance placed on making their own rules and just having fun with free play.

With who? With his friends and cousins

Where? In Dunedin, New Zealand

Expressions that demonstrate the importance of his experiences

## Appendix Four: Ethical Approval



### HUMAN ETHICS COMMITTEE

Secretary, Rebecca Robinson  
Telephone: +64 03 364 2987, Extn 45588  
Email: [human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz](mailto:human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz)

Ref: 2016/15/ERHEC

11 May 2016

Bianca Couto de Aguiar  
School of Sport and P.E.  
UNIVERSITY OF CANTERBURY

Dear Bianca

Thank you for providing the revised documents in support of your application to the Educational Research Human Ethics Committee. I am very pleased to inform you that your research proposal "What are Secondary Physical Education Teachers' Approaches to Games Teaching and Why?" has been granted ethical approval.

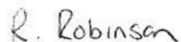
Please note that this approval is subject to the incorporation of the amendments you have provided in your email of 6<sup>th</sup> May 2016.

Should circumstances relevant to this current application change you are required to reapply for ethical approval.

If you have any questions regarding this approval, please let me know.

We wish you well for your research.

Yours sincerely

PP 

Patrick Shepherd  
**Chair**  
**Educational Research Human Ethics Committee**

*Please note that ethical approval relates only to the ethical elements of the relationship between the researcher, research participants and other stakeholders. The granting of approval by the Educational Research Human Ethics Committee should not be interpreted as comment on the methodology, legality, value or any other matters relating to this research.*

F E S



## Appendix Five: Consent forms and Information sheets

**College of Education, Health and Human Development**  
Bianca Couto de Aguiar  
University of Canterbury  
Dovedale Avenue  
Ph. +64 22 4341 240  
Email: [bianca.coutodeaguiar@pg.canterbury.ac.nz](mailto:bianca.coutodeaguiar@pg.canterbury.ac.nz)



### **What are coaches and physical education teachers' approaches to games teaching and why?**

#### **Consent Form for Principal**

(Please tick each box)

- ☐ I have been given a full explanation of this project/study.
- ☐ I understand what will be required of the Coaches and Physical Education Teachers if they take part on this study.
- ☐ I understand that their participation is voluntary and that they may withdraw at any stage without penalty.
- ☐ I understand that any information or opinions they provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and that any published or reported results will not identify them, or the school.
- ☐ I understand that all data collected for this study will be kept in locked and secure facilities at the University of Canterbury that will only be accessed by the researcher and the supervisors, and will be destroyed after ten years.
- ☐ I understand that if I require further information I can contact the researcher, Bianca Couto de Aguiar. If I have any complaints, I can contact the Chair of the University of Canterbury Educational Research Human Ethics Committee.
- ☐ By signing below, I agree that the Coaches and Physical Education Teachers from the \_\_\_\_\_ may participate in this research project.

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Email address: \_\_\_\_\_

Please return this completed consent form to Bianca Aguiar (details above) by the end of (31/08/2016).

**College of Education, Health and Human Development**

Bianca Couto de Aguiar

University of Canterbury

Dovedale Avenue

Ph. +64 22 4341 240

Email: [bianca.coutodeaguiar@pg.canterbury.ac.nz](mailto:bianca.coutodeaguiar@pg.canterbury.ac.nz)



**Information sheet for principal**

**What are coaches and physical education teachers' approaches to games teaching and why?**

My name is Bianca Couto de Aguiar and I am a PhD student at the University of Canterbury. I come from Portugal, where I've been a Physical Education Teacher for 2 years. My own experience as a teacher led to the interest of knowing more about coaches and coaches and teacher's approaches to games teaching. This study has the aim of identifying the ways in which physical education teachers teach games and how this is located in personal and professional experience throughout their lives. It will seek to provide insight into learning to coach/teach as a process that begins well before enrolment in formal coaching and teacher education by looking not only to professional but also personal aspects that influence coaches and teachers' practice, values and beliefs.

I would like to invite the Physical Education Teachers from \_\_\_\_\_ to participate in this study. Their involvement will include taking part in three interviews (around 20-30 minutes each) throughout the remaining terms of school, as well being observed during this period (6 times maximum). The number of observations and times will be negotiated with the teachers according with their schedules.

Please note that the students of this school will not be object of research and all the interviews and observations will focus on teachers and not on the students. The participation in this study is voluntary, and all participants have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. If they withdraw, I will do my best to remove any information relating to them, provided this is practically achievable.

I will take particular care to ensure the confidentiality of all data gathered for this study. I will also take care to ensure participant anonymity in publications of the findings, by using pseudonyms and removing identifying features from any publication. All the data will be securely

stored in password protected facilities and locked storage at the University of Canterbury for ten years following the study. It will then be destroyed.

The results of this research will also be presented internationally at conferences and in research journals. All participants may receive a report on the study.

If you have any questions about the study, please contact me (details above). If you have a complaint about the study, you may contact the Chair, Educational Research Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

If you consent to the Physical Education Teachers of your school to take part in the study, please complete the attached consent form and return it to me (details above) by the end of (31/08/2016).

Thank you for considering this request.

Bianca Couto de Aguiar

**College of Education, Health and Human Development**

Bianca Couto de Aguiar

University of Canterbury

Dovedale Avenue

Ph. +64 22 4341 240

Email: [bianca.coutodeaguiar@pg.canterbury.ac.nz](mailto:bianca.coutodeaguiar@pg.canterbury.ac.nz)



**Information sheet for teacher/coach**

**What are coaches and physical education teachers' approaches to games teaching and why?**

My name is Bianca Couto de Aguiar and I am a PhD student at the University of Canterbury. I come from Portugal, where I've been a Physical Education Teacher for 2 years, and my own experience as a teacher led to the interest of knowing more about what are coaches and teacher's approaches to games teaching. This study has the aim of identifying the ways in which coaches and physical education teachers teach sports based games and how this is located in personal and professional experience throughout their lives. It will seek to provide insight into learning to teach/coach as a process that begins well before enrolment in formal coaching and teacher education by looking not only to professional but also personal aspects that influence coaches and teachers' practice, values and beliefs.

I would like to invite you to participate in this study. Your involvement will include taking part in three interviews throughout the remaining season/school year, as well as being observed during your training sessions/classes (maximum 6 times). The interviews will be audio recorded and they will take around 30 minutes each.

Please note that participation in this study is voluntary. If you do participate, you have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. If you withdraw, I will do my best to remove any information relating to you, provided this is practically achievable.

I will take particular care to ensure the confidentiality of all data gathered for this study. I will also take care to ensure your anonymity, by using pseudonyms and removing identifying features from any publication of the findings. All the data will be securely stored in password protected facilities and locked storage at the University of Canterbury for ten years following the study. It will then be destroyed.

University of Canterbury Private Bag 4800, Christchurch 8140, New Zealand. [www.canterbury.ac.nz](http://www.canterbury.ac.nz)

The results of this research will also be used internationally at conferences and in research journals. All participants may receive a report on the study.

If you have any questions about the study, please contact me (details above). If you have a complaint about the study, you may contact the Chair, Educational Research Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

If you agree to participate in the study, please complete the attached consent form and return it to me (details above) by the end of (15/09/2016).

Thank you for considering this request.

Bianca Couto de Aguiar

**College of Education, Health and Human Development**

Bianca Couto de Aguiar

University of Canterbury

Dovedale Avenue

Ph. +64 22 4341 240

Email: [bianca.coutodeaguiar@pg.canterbury.ac.nz](mailto:bianca.coutodeaguiar@pg.canterbury.ac.nz)



**What are coaches and physical education teachers' approaches to games teaching and why?**

**Consent Form for Physical Education Teacher/Coach**

(Please tick each box)

- ☐ I have read the information sheet; have been given a full explanation of this project.
- ☐ I understand what will be required of me if I agree to take part in this project.
- ☐ I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw at any stage without penalty.
- ☐ I understand that any information or opinions I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and that any published or reported results will not identify me.
- ☐ I understand that the researcher will be collecting field notes throughout the study and that the interviews will be audio-taped.
- ☐ I understand that all data collected for this study will be kept in locked and secure facilities at the University of Canterbury that will only be accessed by the researcher and the supervisors, and will be destroyed after ten years.
- ☐ I understand that I may review the transcripts of the interviews, and I can receive a report on the findings of this study. I have provided my email details below for this.
- ☐ I understand that if I require further information I can contact the researcher, Bianca Couto de Aguiar. If I have any complaints, I can contact the Chair of the University of Canterbury Educational Research Human Ethics Committee.
- ☐ By signing below, I agree to participate in this research project.

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Email address: \_\_\_\_\_

Please return this completed consent form to Bianca Aguiar (details above) by the end of (15/09/2016).

University of Canterbury Private Bag 4800, Christchurch 8140, New Zealand. [www.canterbury.ac.nz](http://www.canterbury.ac.nz)